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EMBRACING A FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC., ILLUSTRATED WITH TABLES, ETC., AS FOLLOWS:

HUNT'S

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AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

NOVEMBER, 1856.

Art. I.—THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE:

AN ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF SCIENCE, FOUNDED AT WASHINGTON IN 1840.

In what follows, we intend to give a history of the National Institute, an association for the advancement of science, organized at Washington, under the implied auspices and patronage of the government, in 1842. We have said that it was organized under the implied auspices of the government, as a fact to be inferred from the manner of its institution, and from the position, character, and employments of its first members. It was incorporated by an act of Congress in the year above mentioned. Its first patron was the President of the United States; its first president a Secretary of War; and the original corporators and first officers of the society consisted of Senators, Representatives, Governors, Judges, chiefs of Departments and Bureaus; the elite and distinguished of the Army and Navy, and other professional employees in the service of the government. In the first year of its existence, nearly all the science of the country was found enrolled in its service. The diplomats of foreign nations resident here, and of our own resident abroad, vied with each other in offerings to its library and cabinet: it had established an extensive correspondence with the scientific institutions of the Old World; and contributions in every branch of science and art came to it, unbidden, from every quarter —not only from this continent, but the other—from England to the Indies, and from Lapland to the Cape of Good Hope.

Such a commencement would certainly have indicated that the society was acting under the certain or promised protection of the government,

and was destined to fill a high place among the scientific institutions of the world. At least, we run no risk in asserting, without further evidence, that at this time the nationality of the institution was fully acknowledged, and the government understood to be pledged to its support. We are therefore not a little surprised, within two years after a commencement of such promise, to find the Institute memorializing Congress, not for an endowment or for any official patronage, but for the appropriation of a sufficient sum of money to enable it to pay charges for transportation of books, minerals, specimens of natural history, and works of art, many of them of great value, which had been sent by distinguished scientists of other countries—which charges, up to that time, and to a very considerable amount, had been paid by the private contributions of members residing in Washington. This memorial, and others which succeeded it, though presented in the Senate by Mr. Woodbury and Mr. Cass, and in the House by Mr. Adams and Mr. Marsh—neither of whom would be apt to advocate any application liable to a constitutional objection—produced no effect. Packages of great value were allowed to lie in the public stores and custom-houses of the large cities, liable to be sold for duties and dues of transportation; or, if rescued from this fate by the munificence of some liberal individual, and sent to Washington, the case was not much bettered. Not a few of the packages thus ransomed from the tender mercies of weighers, measurers, inspectors, and auctioneers, are still to be found—the boxes rotted, moldy, and broken—in the crypts, corridors, and blank places of the Patent-office. An intelligent and public-spirited traveler, who brought with considerable pains and no little expense, eight or ten years since, a fine specimen of *Cervus Canadiensis*, or great American elk, whose head and hoofs alone would be accounted good prize to any academy of natural science, after leaving it in such charge until the hide and hair began to show unmistakable tokens of decay, at length reclaimed the antlers on his own account—the only portion then susceptible of preservation. This untoward turn in the affairs of the Institute might, at first, seem to have been only a peculiar phase of one of those patriotic projects, which begin by asking leave to use private means in accomplishing some purpose of public interest or benefit, and conclude by demanding from Congress nine-tenths of some sum or other of which they have paid or hypothecated the remaining one-tenth, the whole profit of the investment accruing to themselves.

The case of the Institute was, however, in no respect like this. By the act of incorporation it might be made the curator of all contributions to science, coming as well from government expeditions and officials, as from other mere private sources; while at the end of its corporate term, which was limited to twenty years, all the public property thus acquired reverts unconditionally to the government, to be disposed of at its pleasure. There appears, therefore, to have been no personal, interested, or mercenary consideration in the way of the application to Congress, and its want of success must be attributed to other causes.

Previous to any application to Congress for pecuniary assistance, (in July, 1841,) the Institute, finding its private means altogether inadequate to the preservation of its collections, had made application to the Commissioner of Patents to allow a portion of them to be placed in the hall of the Patent-office. The application was promptly acceded to by the Commissioner and Mr. Webster, the then Secretary of State. The portion

thus transferred was the beginning of what is now known as the gallery of the Patent-office, though originally belonging to the National Institute. Had there been any question of the constitutionality of providing funds for preserving and exhibiting collections thus made for the use of the government, it would seem to apply equally against affording place and accommodation as against funds, and as conclusively against the act of a Department as against an act of the Legislature. Besides, a few months before, (in March, 1841,) an appropriation had been made by law for receiving and arranging the collections brought by the exploring expedition, and the National Institute had been designated as the curator.

There is something strange and unaccountable in the fact, that an organization of such promise should suffer so immediate a reverse, and the strangeness will not be essentially diminished until we shall have become acquainted with the cotemporaneous occurrences of that time, and the persons concerned therein. This is an advantage which the writer of this paper can boast of in but a small degree. What of history is to follow will be drawn principally from documents which can be referred to. As an hypothetical cause not coming properly within the scope of an historic paper, we may venture to suppose that political influences and associations had no inconsiderable effect in this matter.

The project of a National Academy of Science had been first set in motion under the Presidency of Mr. Van Buren, and this eminent person and those of his Cabinet show themselves as the principal and most energetic patrons of the National Institute—the first embodiment of this idea. It was not likely to find a kind nurse in the administration which followed; for, as a general rule, politicians regard scientific interests merely as popular or unpopular, or as they affect partisan measures: they uphold every project of their own, and decry every one that is not. In this case, when, after a few years, times seemed more propitious for building on the former foundation, the ground was found pre-occupied by a growth of fresher and stronger associations and interests, and the National Institute was left to its own resources. Thus deprived of patronage and endowment, it has continued to struggle onward to the present day—holding by sufferance its regular meetings in a spare room of the Patent-office; receiving constantly valuable additions to its cabinet and library, which have been so far permitted to remain, mostly in the same state in which they were received, in the cellarage of the building, and publishing at long intervals short bulletins of its proceedings, with original scientific papers, some of them of much value.

It is for the purpose of attracting public attention to this institution that the present paper has been written. To give a synopsis of its history; to indicate, as near as may be, the causes which have produced its present decrepitude, and to make one effort to save its valuable collections from total loss, is the sole object which the writer has proposed to himself. Even if it shall be found of no service in a remedial point of view, it may at least perform one important function of all true histories, and contribute to the general fund of recorded experience. The history of literary and scientific institutions will not be found in the journals of their proceedings or their official acts and papers, any more than the history of the politics and government of the country is to be found in the journals and laws of Congress. Motives of a mere personal and interested character—family and political influences, private friendships, enmities and jealousies,

and the whole host of petty alliances and animosities, which in all public bodies ferment and engender into intrigue, and plot, and cabal—will very often be found at the bottom of what is put forth to the public as a case of pure science or perfect patriotism. The autopsy which discovers poison in the viscera, after the body has been embalmed and laid in consecrated ground, is never a grateful operation, but may be useful to the living, fulfill the ends of public justice, and in these respects become both necessary and laudable.

In giving this communication to the public, through a journal whose character is more directly identified with the interests of commerce than with those of science, the writer has been governed by two considerations, which it will be as well to state here. In the first place, the National Institute being in the condition which we have described, cannot be supposed at all in the good graces of those journals which are professedly scientific, and any communication in regard to its concerns would not be apt to find countenance or favor with journalists whose interests or predilections are almost necessarily pre-engaged; and, in the second place, a principal reason why the *Merchants' Magazine* has been chosen as the medium for publishing this communication, arises from the belief that if the National Institute is ever to be redeemed from its present state of inability and depression, it must be effected by the liberality of individuals. It would certainly be but a small contribution to a very useful and patriotic purpose, to furnish, by subscription throughout the country, sufficient endowment to enable it to arrange and exhibit its present very extensive collection, and to provide for its constant increase, by a well-regulated system of exchanges; nor would it require a long time, with such encouragement, before the cabinet and museum here would rival the older national museums of the other continent. In this respect, and for this endowment, it is to the commercial interest, as the most wealthy and most munificent, that the friends of the National Institute must look with the greatest confidence; and, therefore, a journal devoted to that interest is most appropriate for an exposition like the present.

A scientific association had existed at an early day in the city of Washington, and was first incorporated in the year 1818, under the title of the "Columbian Institute, for the promotion of Arts and Sciences." Its members consisted chiefly of officers of the Corps du Genil of the Army, of scientific officers of the Navy, of gentlemen resident in Washington, professionally employed in the Departments, principally in the Patent-office, and of Ministers and Consuls representing the government, and resident in foreign countries. The charter of this institution expired in 1838. In May, 1840, a voluntary association was formed, under the designation of the "National Institution for the promotion of Science," which, with an amended constitution, went into operation in the ensuing year. In the same year, by mutual agreement, the members of the new organization, and the archives, libraries, and other properties, were incorporated into one.

It is not improbable that some of the founders of these institutions may have regarded them as the germ, out of which was to spring at some future time a great national academy. But the main object looked to at first seems to have been the preservation and increase of collections in natural science, and to provide a hall or place of meeting for intercourse and mutual improvement. The Columbian Institute had been of some

service in discussing scientific projects of the government; several of its papers had attracted attention and been quoted in higher places, and there were works of a public character concerning which the heads of administration had designed to consult with the infant academy.

About this time also (1840) it began to be evident that in so active a population as ours, where so many fields are open at once to the energy of the people, some national authority in matters of science, whose opinion could always be consulted with safety, was absolutely necessary. In 1839 an application had been made, and was very nearly successful, for the appropriation of a very considerable sum—several thousands of dollars—to construct an instrument for determining latitude and longitude by the dip of the magnetic needle. A piece of gross charlatanry which could never have been thought of, had there been any competent authority, of easy reference, at the seat of government. In the equipment and organization of this exploring expedition, much uncertainty and delay had been encountered, from the necessity of reconciling and compounding the different plans presented and recommended. Such experience could not fail to demonstrate the importance of an institution for scientific purposes at the seat of government; and it would be apparent that, as a nucleus for such an institution, the collection of all the professional employees at Washington into a quasi college, would be a natural step of great advantage to the public service and to themselves.

It was a pity that the founders of the society did not look at once and at first for some adequate endowment. They probably had either no idea of the quantity of material or number of connections which their position would command; of the high function devolving upon them as the medium of exchange between the New World and the Old, and the expense necessary to be incurred in preserving their collections; or they were too confident in their position and proximity to Congress. It cannot be overlooked, that if they had at first looked to private munificence, instead of public patronage, the present unfortunate state of affairs might have been prevented.

The acceptance by the government, a year or two before this time, of the bequest of Mr. Smithson, and the opinion then entertained by distinguished men, that the best disposition which could be made of this fund was to confide it to the National Institution, may have contributed to their carelessness in regard to so important a matter. Mr. Rush and Mr. Duponceau, as well as many other citizens of high reputation and great experience, were of opinion that the easiest expedient to get rid of the scruples entertained at that time about the propriety, not to say constitutionality, of the government accepting the benefaction and becoming the executors of a private individual, would be to endow with it an incorporation of which the high functionaries of the State might be constituted visitors. Though the founders of the National Institute may have looked at this resource as one within their reach, yet they were early reminded that it was by no means a certain one. Mr. Poinsett, on taking the chair as president, on the 8th day of March, 1841, concludes his address as follows:—

"Although I hope and believe that the government will become convinced that the best disposition it can make of the Smithson fund, and that most suited to carry into effect the benevolent intentions of the testator, will be to confide its application to this Institution, I would not have you depend altogether upon that

expectation. Let us rather place our reliance upon the co-operation of other scientific institutions in the United States, which have so manifest an interest in promoting our views; upon the support of the people, for whose benefit the Institution has been founded; and, above all, upon our own energies and resources, which, if zealously exerted and judiciously directed, will, I have no doubt, secure our success."

This was the correct view of the case, and the more entitled to consideration from the political character and position of the person who gave it. Mr. Poinsett had, but a few months before, been at the head of the War Department, and as a politician, was well able to foresee and foretell what kind of management might possibly interfere with the final disposition of the Smithsonian bequest. He recommended action, and this advice is always good.

The history of all scientific establishments, in the Old World as well as in the New, shows that their usefulness and reputation has always been in proportion to their activity, and not to their endowment. Indeed, the want of the latter advantage has often, in the public body as well as the private, been a prime cause of ultimate success. The two national academies which have filled the largest space and exercised the greatest influence upon science and art—the Royal Society of England and the Academy of Sciences (now the National Institute) of France—rose slowly and from very humble beginnings: the earliest meetings of the one having been held privately at Oxford during the Protectorate, at the house of a recusant divine; while the first patron of the other was the physician of the Cardinal Richelieu, whose principal prescription, so far as his Eminence was concerned, is said to have been the charm of his conversation. The patents incorporating both these academies, since so famous, were conferred for the same reason, and that was to prevent them from being prosecuted under the laws against conventicles and unlawful assemblies.

The years 1840, 1841, and 1842 were the hopeful years of the new Institution for the promotion of science. In March, 1841, the Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Badger, placed the collections of the exploring expedition, then just received, in its charge, accompanied with an appropriation of $5,000 made by Congress, for the purpose of effecting its arrangement and preservation. This is, we believe, the only money ever received by the Institution from the government; and the published transactions leave it somewhat doubtful whether it received even this. In August of the same year Mr. Webster, on a request of a committee of the Institution, and the concurrence of the Commissioner of Patents, permitted them to use the upper rooms of the Patent-office for the arrangement of their cabinet generally, "so long as this custody shall not interfere with any uses for which the Patent-office is destined by law." About the same time Mr. Bell, the Secretary of War, presented them with the whole of the collection of portraits of distinguished Indians, thus making the commencement of what is now known as the cabinet and gallery of the Patent-office. Within this year was also received the entomological cabinet of F. L. Castelnau, and a valuable cabinet of arranged minerals, presented by Messrs. Maclure and Owen. A portrait of Guizot, a bust of Cuvier, and a painting by Spagnolletti, are among the works of art presented at the same time. The printing-press at which Dr. Franklin worked was also sent here as an antique relic worthy of preservation; and, as important

in the early history of the country, there were deposited in the archives autograph letters and papers of General Washington, and proceedings of the Constituent Assembly of Maryland in 1774, 1775, and 1776.

In reference to this last material—we mean documents relating to the early history of the United States—we may say that until very recently there has been no species of information of such great value which has been so much neglected, of which there must have been so much accessible within the recollection of those now living, and of which, it is to be feared, so much is now irrecoverably lost. Until within a few years since, the original journal of the last day's session of the Long Parliament—the Rump—with the half-written word, where Cromwell may be supposed to have interrupted the sitting with his soldiers, was in the possession of a distinguished family in New Jersey; and though such a paper would justly be regarded rather as a curiosity than as of any historic use, there are doubtless many other documents of the same period of more intrinsic value. If a national academy were to perform no other function than to gather up papers of this class, arrange, and preserve them for future use, it would be worthy of encouragement and patronage. It is within our memories, when the records of the general courts of Connecticut and Massachusetts, and of the Dutch government of New York, which last were kept at Albany, and untranslated until 1817, were referred to only for the purpose of ridiculing whatever might seem simple and odd in the manners of comparatively a primitive age. This rich ore was less unwrought even by the writers in fiction, until Scott had produced, in Major Bridgeworth, the re-embodiment of a mortal, such as he whose grave we recollect, not twenty years since, to have been shown in the Common at New Haven. This unfilial feeling for the founders and patriarchs of a government which has been thus far successful and happy and glorious, has now passed away, and even the lighter mementos of those days will be garnered for the uses of the future historian. But a few years since, an antiquarian, whose researches should be limited to the early history of the continent, would have run some risk of becoming merely ridiculous. At present the subject is one of whose use and value there is no question. The French government have had for some years a regulation by which all the acts and correspondence of its generals, governors, and men of affairs, are, after their death, transferred to the archives of the respective departments in which they had been engaged. This is a rule which could only be enforced in a very arbitrary government, but it is at once reasonable and patriotic. So far as our own great men are concerned—we mean those of the revolution—we believe them to have been so identified with the important acts of the time that a letter of Washington to his overseer, or of Adams to his grocer, might be important as giving to "the body of the time its form and pressure."

At this period of the National Institution—1840–42—in less than a year, and independent of the larger collections referred to, there had been sent to the cabinet 1,274 specimens in natural history, and 266 volumes, some of them of great value, had been given to the library. At one of the ordinary meetings, there were present 103 members. The association had received patriarchal letters of advice and instruction from the venerable Duponceau, from Mr. Rush, and Mr. Pickering, and had among its members Arago, Quetelet, Capt. W. H. Smyth, Aassler, Gallatin, Nicollet, Wheaton, and others.

It was intimated by Mr. J. R. Ingersoll, that the Count de Survilliers (Joseph Bonaparte) might be induced to transfer to this Institution the magnificent picture gallery of his uncle, the Cardinal Fesch, which had just then been bequeathed to him. At the end of 1841 the Institution had received 46 scientific communications, and had 500 contributing members. Among the communications, was one from T. A. Conrad, "On a portion of the Atlantic tertiary region, with a description of a new species of organic remains."

During this year also, Lieut. Maury, (whose investigations were about that time turning toward the branch of science in which he has since acquired so much distinction,) suggested the importance of sounding the ocean at great depths, for the purpose of ascertaining the character and configuration of its bottom.

From such a hopeful picture it is painful to turn to the embarrassment and reverse which were soon to follow. During the summer of 1842, the collections and correspondence of the Institute continued to increase as heretofore, but the great defect, the want of a sufficient permanent fund, began now to be sensibly felt. The cabinet of Castelnau, which had been transferred from the Jardin de Plantes, was left in New York in the warehouse of the merchants to whom it had been consigned, charged with the expenses of its transportation from Paris.

The portrait of Guizot, presented by R. Walsh, Esq., some years ago, had to be spirited to Washington through the unofficial agency of the Department of State; and there were other annoyances of the same kind. This was undoubtedly a crisis in the affairs of the academy. If it had been able to surmount this difficulty, its future career would have been certain. It had shown itself possessed of sufficient talent and energy to command the aid and respect of the scientific world, and completely to answer the ends of its institution: all it wanted was funds, and if this *desideratum* had been overlooked or deemed unimportant at first, the error of this opinion was sufficiently palpable now. If Congress refused to contribute—and it must be confessed that at that time the finances of the country were in a most uncertain and dilapidated condition—an appeal should have been made to the public in general, not by speeches and circulars, but by direct applications to individuals of wealth and influence.

At this time, (in June, 1842,) for the purpose of bringing their embarrassments before the public, the Hon. W. C. Preston delivered an eloquent address, urging the claims of the Institute upon Congress and the country. This address was published and circulated, and, in accordance with resolutions passed to that effect, the Secretaries of the War and Navy Departments issued circulars to their respective branches of the public service, soliciting their co-operation and aid. It must be borne in mind here—and it will to some extent excuse the apparent illiberality of Congress—that the time was most unpropitious for presenting a claim for any new appropriation of money. The suspension and resumption of specie payments, which had just passed, and the deficiency of the revenue, had brought money and credit into such a condition that there was no determined relation between them. The Administration and the Legislature were in direct opposition to each other. At such a time, it was evident that Congress would reject any appropriation which it could find reason against, particularly if asked for any object which happened to be in favor with the President and his Cabinet.

Throughout the years 1842 and 1843 contributions to the cabinet and library continued to arrive as before. A good many of the acquisitions, however, are noticed only as boxes and packages, indicating that there was either no room or no means for their exhibition. There is occasional mention, too, of unpaid bills for freight and transportation. The articles sent are numerous and nearly all valuable. A single specimen of pure copper, sent from the Ontonagon River, on the south shore of Lake Superior, weighing two tons; fossils, minerals, casts, coins, maps, pictures, and books, came from every direction. With these are ranged certain articles valued only by Englishmen, Americans, and devotees. A piece of the Royal George, raised at Spithead, and a pincushion, made from the dresses of General Washington's staff. These might as well have been left out. The taste for such relics is, we believe, only Romish and Anglo-Saxon. The patriotism of Frenchmen is not fed on such *pabula;* and while the English keep in the Great Abbey the breeches in which Nelson fought at Trafalgar, the last plain uniform of the great Napoleon lies buried with him.

In the year 1842 the act of incorporation was passed—a measure looking directly to the Smithsonian bequest as a fund for the future support of the Institute. This seems to have been thought the most proper disposition of that fund by Mr. Adams, Mr. Rush, Mr. Woodbury, Mr. Preston, Mr. Poinsett, and Mr. J. R. Ingersoll, comprehending as large an array of talent and influence as ever had been brought to bear on any project for the advancement of science entertained in the country. Mr. Woodbury, in an address before a committee of the directors, in 1843, refers to the constitutional objection which might be raised on the subject of a scientific institute supported by government, showing briefly and conclusively that it is groundless. Mr. Duponceau, in a letter to the secretary of the Institute, dated April, 1842, speaking of his suggestion made in a previous communication that the Smithsonian fund had better be disposed of in this way, says:—

"I find from Mr. Rush's letter, which you have communicated to me, that I was not the only one to whom that suggestion occurred. Since that time, it appears to have struck the minds of many of the most respectable friends of science, and it appears to have agreed with the opinion expressed by your distinguished president, Mr. Poinsett, in his inaugural address. I see with pleasure that Mr. Rush entertains the same opinion. No one has had a better opportunity to know the real intentions of the testator, and his opinion, on that and many other accounts, is entitled to the greatest respect."

While Mr. Rush, in a letter written about the same time, reasons as follows:—

"Your machinery, put together by individuals, has been tried and works well. It wants but little legislation to raise it up to the level of the Smithsonian will. A law that would adopt it under the name stipulated, with the requisite provision for the application of the annual interest of the fund, and the due retention of a visitatorial power by the United States, seem the principal enactments that would be called for."

In another part of the same communication he expresses a belief that such an arrangement would have been agreeable to Mr. Smithson himself:—

"A belief," he says, "derived from intercourse at the Royal Society and elsewhere, while in London on that errand, with those who were friends and associates

of Mr. Smithson in his lifetime—and among them I name the estimable and enlightened Mr. Guillemard, once known as a Commissioner in our country under the British treaty—that an institution like yours would be the kind of one he would himself have designated."

The act of incorporation was brought in by Mr. Preston, and contained provisions under which the Smithsonian bequest might, with little other legislative aid, have been intrusted to the Institute. That the bill was finally passed without such provision shows either, that at that time there were grounds of opposition on the score of expediency or constitutionality, or that some particular clique or interest familiar with the lobbies and ante-rooms of the capital, had already otherwise determined. Mr. Smithson's oracular designation of the uses of his bequest, "the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men," was almost sufficient to frustrate his intention. If he and Mr. Girard, and other public benefactors, instead of general and indefinite expressions of their intentions, had left with their last wills and testaments a brief description of the size and character of the buildings to be used as the seats of their charities, of the administration and professorships intended to be established, of the character of the instruction to be communicated, and who were to be its recipients, though their designs might have been imperfect or faulty, it would certainly have been more economical and more useful, than when left to be inferred and interpreted from general declarations. In such case the immense palatial edifice in the suburb of Philadelphia, or that incomprehensible and rectilineal compilation of tower and spire, and buttress and bartizan, which defies criticism, on the mall at Washington, would never have been called into existence.*

In 1843 the Directors, beginning to be uneasy about their position, projected a general meeting of all the scientific men of the country, to be held at Washington. This concourse was to be in imitation of the British Association, a numerous scientific assemblage, which had now been in existence for eleven years, meeting annually in different cities of the kingdom. Attempts had been previously made to effect such reunions in the cities here, but without success. The Association of American Geologists and Naturalists had, however, for the four preceding years, been able to hold annual meetings in New York, Philadelphia, Boston and Albany. It was proposed, therefore, to invite this association, for a special and popular branch of science, to hold their next annual meeting at Washington, and at the same time to extend a general invitation to all the men of science throughout the country. The association of Geologists and Naturalists accepted the invitation, but did not merge themselves or lose their individuality in the meeting of the Institute.

This plan was elaborated. Circulars and invitations were issued, and the meeting convened on the 1st of April, 1844. It was opened with prayer by the Rev. Dr. Butler, followed by a short address by the President of the United States, who presided. Then came the principal speech, which was made by Mr. Robert J. Walker, the Senator from Mississippi, and afterwards Secretary of the Treasury. This oration was such as is

* It would certainly have been in good taste, and also a graceful acknowledgement, if the Smithsonian Institution, having its endowment from an Englishman, had been built, so far as its uses permitted, in a pure English style of architecture, of any period. The latest would have probably been the most appropriate. But that was no reason for a construction like the present, which looks like Alnwick Castle insett among two or three churches. It is said to be the wish or intention of the Regents to sell this building to the government.

usually made by politicians on similar occasions. It enumerated all the triumphs of American science, industry and skill, arranging them in the order in which Angelo places our "compelled sins," so as to stand more "for number than account," and expatiating upon the capacity of American philosophers and American artists, as if Carver's travels and the who-reads-an-American-book number of the Edinburgh Review had just been published. But not a word of any plan for the relief of the Institute he was addressing, which was without funds; without a hall to meet in, and whose members had relied principally upon this convention as a means of placing their situation before their fellow-citizens. No mention is made of the Smithsonian fund as existing, or at all applicable to their necessities.

The meeting was continued through the week, and concluded on the 8th of April. At its sessions, ten in number, thirty-two papers were read on scientific subjects. None of these have been published in the proceedings, which contain only the addresses by President Tyler, Mr. Adams, Mr. Walker and Mr. Spencer, made at the opening and closing of the different sittings; a letter from Mr. Woodbury, and a paper from Mr. Rush, concerning the proper disposition of the Smithsonian fund. During the continuance of the meeting there were daily re-unions in the Library of the Treasury Department, and receptions at the houses of the heads of Departments and influential citizens. Nothing, however, seems to have been done in behalf of the Institute, except the preparation of a memorial, addressed to Congress, and signed by 38 members of the meeting, in which they recommend the Institute to the consideration of the Legislature, hoping that "Congress will distinguish the present session by the necessary appropriation of funds to an object so truly national and so truly republican." To this memorial there are only twelve signatures of those persons who had read papers, and who, of course, must have been present; and the names of several distinguished and influential persons, known to have been there, do not appear to this document. This paper was intended as a support to the memorial of the Institute, signed by its officers, and presented about the same time.

It is singular that neither of these papers refer to the existence or applicability of the Smithsonian fund, or present any claim to it. The memorial of the Institute concludes as follows:—

"All the Institute asks of Congress, then, is an appropriation of a sum sufficient to discharge the arrears of expenses heretofore incurred, and due by the Institute —an annual appropriation for the necessary purposes of the Association, and the continuance of the indulgence heretofore granted, of the use of convenient rooms for preserving the property and holding the ordinary meetings."

We have not been able to find, in the Journals of the Senate or House of Representatives, what were the arguments used in committee or in debate, against this application. There is, however, in the third bulletin of the proceedings of the Institute, notice of a letter received by the Secretary from the Hon. G. P. Marsh, a member of the Library Committee of Congress, "asking information on certain points, to enable him to meet objections made by persons unfriendly to the Institute." There was, therefore, some decided opposition to the claim of the Institute, and, from the way in which it is here stated, we may infer that the objections were supported by external interest, and did not relate merely to constitutionality or expediency. However this may have been, Congress adjourned without making any appropriation.

The published proceedings of the next two years (1845 and 1846) are quite meager, and we learn from the preface to the bulletin of the last mentioned year, that the regular meetings had been for a time suspended. The correspondence and contributions from all quarters seem to have gone on as before. The document above referred to states that there have arrived from all quarters more than a thousand boxes, barrels, trunks, and other packages, for the exhibition or proper care of which, there was no adequate provision. In December of 1845, another brief memorial was presented to Congress, without effect; and in the succeeding year (1846) the Smithsonian Institution was established with a constitution, which seems, in some respects, to have been copied from that of the Regents of the University of the State of New York.

The management of this body is intrusted to three classes of officials; the members, the regents, and the officers of the Institution. The first named class, which consists of the President and Vice President of the United States, the heads of departments, the Mayor of the city of Washington, with such honorary members as may have been appointed, constitute the senate of the establishment, and are to direct its operations. The Regents are, in the nature of an executive council, to supervise the details of administration; while the officers, of which the Secretary is the active and responsible person, constitute the executive proper. The members or principal body of these scientific "three estates" are, with the exception only of the honorary members, entirely a political body, changing with the changes of party. The Regents, who consist of the Vice-President and Chief Justice of the United States, three members of the Senate and three members of the House of Representatives, and six citizens, two of whom are to be members of the National Institute, make also a body depending only upon political preponderance—there being no Regent of any permanence except the Chief Justice. If, therefore, the constitution was intended to resemble that of the Regents of the New York University, the best feature seems to have been lost sight of. In that organization the prime characteristic is the permanence of the Regency, the political component being small; whereas, in the latter constitution it makes almost the whole body. The object in designating two members of the National Institute to seats in this scientific council does in no way appear. The gentlemen thus appointed do not seem to have taken any part in the proceedings of the Institute since they became Regents of the Smithsonian, and we perceive in the last official register that they are designated as citizens of Washington and not as members of the National Institute, which according to law, is the qualification making them eligible. The Smithsonian Institution, under its present organization, seems neither a corporation or a bureau, but a scientific commission, partaking more of the latter than the former character, and like the Departments, responsible only to Congress, to whom it reports annually. In a report on the affairs of the Smithsonian Institution, made to the House of Representatives in March, 1855, the constitution of the British Museum is referred to as being of a similar character, but on examination it will appear that, though liable to similar defects, the organizations are essentially different. The British Museum is indeed managed by trustees appointed by different constituencies —the Crown, the ministry, the donors, and the parliament—but these trustees, when once appointed, are all equal in their powers and duties, and equally permanent; whereas, in the Smithsonian Institution there are three

distinct and different classes of officials. It is true the Regents, judging from their reports, seem to have taken some liberties with the organic law. The members, "the establishment" as it is called, seem to have met only six times since 1846; while the honorary members, who, by the law, are part of the establishment, seem occasionally to have met with the Board of Regents, where they have no recognized place.* It is probable that the present arrangement as a commission or a bureau, accountable only to the Legislature, and subject to all the agitations of such bodies, will neither be found as practical or as efficient as would have been a corporation with a regular visitation, and amenable to the courts. The law has itself, perhaps, no exact prototype, unless we refer it to that class of legislation which a celebrated historian designates as perfect English.†

From an analysis of the history, of which we have given the principal facts, it would appear that Congress, after a deliberation of about ten years, have established the principal that it is unconstitutional or inexpedient for them to make any grant of money for the support of a National Academy whose collections, cabinet and library should be the product of the industry and correspondence of their own citizens; but that it is perfectly constitutional to become the administrators of a foreign bequest for a similar purpose, and to superintend its application by a commission, consisting of some of the most distinguished functionaries of the government.

From 1846 till 1848 the National Institute seems to have been left to itself, and to have given up the ungrateful and useless task of soliciting appropriations from Congress. The traditions of the city say that, during this interval, the only meetings of the Institute were held at the residences of the members, where, at a *petit souper*, after the manner of the *cœna* of the Romans or the Wistar parties of a neighboring city, the scientific projects of the day and their own affairs were discussed together. Such convivial conjunctions are grateful and cheering, when they are made to diversify and alleviate our severer labors; but of themselves, and when they constitute the whole business of an association, it becomes a mere club, with a scientific name. There are, we know, very grave and learned bodies, and those of high reputation too, whose most important act has for many years been the settlement of the Treasurer's accounts, accompanied by the *symposium* of grand annual dinners; but these associations have not figured very largely in the annals of science.

The act organizing the Smithsonian Institution provides in its sixth section that—

"In proportion as suitable arrangements can be made for their reception, all objects of art and of foreign and curious research, and all objects of Natural History, plants, geological and mineral specimens belonging, or hereafter to belong to the United States, which may be in the city of Washington, in whosesoever custody the same may be, be delivered to such persons as may be authorized by the Board of Regents to receive them, and shall be arranged in such order, and so classed as best to facilitate the examination and study of them, in the building as aforesaid to be erected by the Institution."

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* Seventh Annual Report of the Regents, page 92, et. pass.

† "The Toleration Act approaches very near to the idea of a great English law. * * * * This law, abounding with contradictions which every smatterer in political philosophy can detect, did what a law framed by the utmost skill of the greatest masters of political philosophy might have failed to do."—*Macaulay's History, Chap. XI.*

It is impossible to understand this section otherwise than as establishing at the city of Washington a National Gallery of Art and Science, to be maintained and supported at the expense of the Smithsonian fund, the bequest of a private individual who lived and died the citizen of a foreign country, and left his substance for the support of a general and laudable charity; which charity a commission of citizens of the highest talent and reputation of the Republic had already decided could neither mean a College, a Library, an Observatory, or a Museum. A National Gallery they seem never to have thought of. Such an enactment, simply considered, seems inconsistent either with the pious execution of Mr. Smithson's bequest, or with the national honor and dignity, and, taken in connection with other contemporaneous transactions, assumes a still more objectionable aspect. Only four years before, the National Institute, an association of private citizens, had been incorporated for this very purpose of becoming the curators of the public property in art and science at the seat of government, had been inaugurated and set out before the world with such palpable encouragement as to attract and command the attention of the whole scientific public. The only difficulty about this native association, as elicited by the documents and debates, was as to the constitutionality of making appropriations for its maintenance. The effect of the new Institution, with its foreign endowment, is to dim and enfeeble its predecessor, already beginning to take ground as a national institution, to deprive it of one of its principal functions, make it inoperative, useless and contemptible, and after a few years to disfigure and blot it out entirely, leaving the inference plain to any one who chooses so to make it, that though the Congress of the United States be incompetent to establish a national gallery, to be endowed from their own funds, they are by no means prevented from establishing and endowing a similar institution with funds derived from other and foreign resources.

This view of the effect of the enactment which we have quoted, and it seems susceptible of no other, indicates a small measure of Legislative wisdom and patriotism; but there is another provision in the law, from which it may be inferred that the legislator who elaborated its provisions, had before him some kind of vision, involving contradictions which he was unwilling or unable to reconcile. This law, establishing in perpetuity the Smithsonian Institution as a bureau or department of the government, provides for the appointment of two of its Regents from members of the National Institute, and it is scarce consistent with good logic or right reason to suppose that it was intended to destroy or render inoperative the body from which these two public functionaries were eligible. The two provisions of the law—one which makes two of the members of the National Institute Regents of the Smithsonian Institution, and the other which takes away the principal function of the National Institute as curator or custodier of the public property in works of art and science—seem perfectly irreconcilable with each other. And though there be a theory set forth by which this discrepancy is accounted for, it is one which the writer of this paper is as little disposed to believe as he is to publish.

The Regents of the Smithsonian Institution have at no time that we are aware of, made application for any portion of the scientific property, of which, by the law, they are made the custodiers. Indeed, until very recently, the property liable to such disposition has been of very little amount. The collection of the exploring expedition having been transfer-

red some time before (in 1843) to the charge of the commander of the expedition, all that was left in the hands of the National Institute consisted of its own property, the collections and donations of its members and correspondents, which would not become the property of the United States until after the expiration of the charter of the Institute. The transfer of the collections of the exploring expedition from the charge of the National Institute to that of the commander of the expedition became necessary from the want of funds for its arrangement. These funds have been supplied and expended under the authority of the Library Committee of Congress, till 1854, when, by resolution, the collection was committed to the charge of the Commissioner of Patents.

In treating of the affairs of the National Institute, it has been necessary to say something of the Smithsonian Institution. In doing so we have confined ourselves to the particulars in which the concerns of the two establishments had been connected by law. Their proper functions (if the interests and honor of the country be consulted on the one hand, and the intentions of Mr. Smithson on the other) need, we conceive, have no necessary relation or dependence.

In 1848 the National Institute resumed its usual meetings in a room in the basement of the Patent-office, assigned to them by Mr. Commissioner Burke. Mr. Vattemare spent a portion of that year in this country. He took much interest in the affairs of the Institute, and by his advice the number of its corresponding and foreign members was much increased. He seems to have acted on the principle of the great Napoleon in his first Italian campaigns, that if the *personnel* were large and efficient, and the country in which they were operating rich, the *caisse-militaire* might be conquered, and the enemy made to pay the expenses of the war. Amendments to the constitution were also suggested, about this time, by which it was thought the favor of Congress might be secured, and the heads of Departments seem yet to have retained some consideration for an establishment of which they were either directors or patrons. The meetings were more frequent and more numerously attended, and it was proposed to amend the charter so that the property of all articles of the library and cabinet should at once be vested in the government, provided the Institute be recognized as its curator, and endowed with sufficient funds for its arrangement and exhibition. This act of the Institute shows, what did not appear from any previous document, that former applications for aid had been resisted and refused on the pretense that the funds asked were for the preservation of scientific property not belonging to the United States. It was proposed also to solicit a grant of public land for the support of the Institute instead of money. Such grants had already been made for educational and other purposes, by heads of the government, about whose wisdom and patriotism there could be no question. There seemed good grounds to hope that it might be again sanctioned here. Another memorial was prepared and presented to Congress, in which the services, rights and claims of the Institute are truly and plainly presented, and a spirited appeal made to preserve the nationality of the public collections. The following are extracts:—

"The collection of the National Institute is more extensive, if not quite as rare in some respects, as that of the exploring expedition, and the government of the United States is the residuary legatee of the National Institute. It is therefore respectfully submitted, whether sound policy, independent of any other considera-

tion, does not require the government to consider its own interest in the case, and provide a place for the proper exhibition and safe keeping of this large collection.

"The collection of the exploring expedition and other collections belonging to various departments of the government, which have been deposited for safe keeping and exhibition, under the care of the National Institute, abound in valuable duplicates, which, for the sake of science, ought to be distributed or exchanged.

"When the government undertook to make these collections, it undertook to make them in the name of science, and the faith of the country was in a manner pledged so to receive and so to dispose of them as would most advance the cause of science.

"Many institutions, learned bodies, societies and individuals, both at home and abroad, are anxious to procure these duplicates. In their cabinets and collections are many specimens which are not to be found here, and many here which are duplicates of each other, and which are not to be found there. An exchange would mutually enlarge and enrich both, and the National Institute is not only willing, but would be most happy to conduct, without charge, such exchanges of duplicates with the different cabinets of the world as would most tend to enhance the value of the collections which at present belong to the government.

* * * * * * * * * *

"Seeing, therefore, that your memorialists have no other interest in the matter than that which is shared alike by all good citizens who are desirous of advancing the cause of science and the useful arts, or of adding, in their humble way, to the renown of the country, your memorialists venture to call the attention of your honorable body to the disposition about to be made of the collection of the United States exploring expedition.

* * * * * * * * * *

"It is contemplated to transfer this truly national collection, the fruit of so much labor and toil, for which life and treasure without stint have been expended, to the Smithsonian Institution, a private establishment, founded by a benevolent man, it is true, but a foreigner, and intended to increase the fame and perpetuate the name of a private individual.

"In the programme of organization of the Smithsonian Institution, officially published, it is declared in the third article that the Smithsonian Institution 'is not a national establishment, as is frequently supposed, but the establishment of an individual, and is to bear and perpetuate his name.'

"Shall this national collection, which has cost so much to the country, be given away to a private establishment, intended to perpetuate the name of a private individual.

"We also respectfully suggest, whether it be fair or becoming to burden the Smithsonian bequest with the care and safe keeping of the public property."

The arguments as to nationality and patriotism would, perhaps, tell better now than they did at the time the memorial was presented, though it seems, at either stage, neither decorous or decent to use them. But the argument that it would be unfair and unbecoming to divert Mr. Smithson's bequest to an interested and peculiar purpose, national it may be, but still different and contrary to his intention, addresses itself to our piety as well as our patriotism, and deserves to be well considered. The memorial was presented by Mr. Cass in the Senate, and Mr. Marsh in the House, and had the same fate as its predecessors.

In 1850 a spark of vitality was excited in the derelict society by a letter from Mr. Clayton, Secretary of State, requesting the Institute, as a body recognized by the government, to designate a central authority to communicate with the British Commissioners for the great Industrial Exhibition to be held in London in 1851. The Commissioners had decided, in order the better to allot space for the articles of different nations, to receive

nothing for exhibition which had not been recognized as proper by some national and central authority in the country from which the articles were sent. The Secretary's letter is dated on the 27th of May, 1850, at which time Congress was in session, and continued to be so for more than three months thereafter. This would have been a proper juncture for the authorities of the Institute, with the application of the Secretary for their assistance, and the acknowledgement of their nationality in their hands, to have asked a *quid pro quo* for this and former services together. This was not done. In the current official phrase of these present times, the Institute resolved first "to take action on the subject submitted to it by the Department of State,"* and immediately thereafter did take action by appointing a committee of twenty-one of its members, five of whom were also Regents of the Smithsonian Institution, who were to act as the central authority in the matter of the Great Industrial Exhibition. Out of this body an executive committee of five were appointed to conduct the business and the correspondence, and finally the Secretary of the Institute was deputed to go to London as the accredited agent of the American exhibitors. The Department of State sent also an agent, whose authority somewhat interfered with the functionary of the Institute. The expenses of both missions were at first defrayed by the munificence of wealthy American citizens resident in London, who have been, we believe, at length, and recently, reimbursed by private scientific associations in this country.

From that time (1850) till the present, nothing has occurred to alter the condition or prospects of the Association. Its meetings are still held in the same room in the basement of the Patent-office alloted to it by Mr. Commissioner Burke. A half column of its proceedings appear occasionally in the *National Intelligencer*, and it has published two short bulletins containing papers and proceedings. The Library, consisting of 4,000 volumes, many of them the gift of foreign governments and academies of art and science, and of great value, is unarranged and uncared for. Its cabinet and collections have been for all this time as useless, and more subject to decay than if the minerals had been left *in situ*, and the statues, busts, casts and coins had never left the mint or studio. And this has been the case for years, under the eyes of public functionaries, knowing that the reversionary interest in all this property is vested in the government.

It is not possible to give a catalogue of the collections of the Institute. They are not kept together, and many of them are yet in the original cases and packages in which they were sent. The following brief summary will give some idea of their value:—

In Geology and Mineralogy there are two entire cabinets of arranged specimens. One presented by Owen and Maclure, and the other by General Totten; several boxes of specimens from the School of Mines; 100 geological specimens from Heidelberg; 4 boxes from Mexico, presented by Brantz Mayer; a collection of fossils by Dr. Locke, besides one hundred and twenty unopened boxes from different parts of the world. The collection of metallic ores, marbles, coals and basalts is also very extensive.

In Natural History: of birds there are 1420 specimens, representing the Ornithology of the United States, Holland, Guiana, Brazil, Mexico, Africa,

* "To take action," "to take the initiative" are phrases which the literature of our age owes to its politics. They put one in mind of Mercutio's objurgation against the fashion-mongers. Talleyrand made the "*commencement du fin*" classic in France; "to take action" is its opposite, meaning the commencement of the beginning.

Bengal and Iceland. The collection of shells, plants in herbariums, is rich; while in Entomology, there is Castlenau's cabinet, containing upwards of 6,000 specimens, besides many other collections by naval officers, consuls, and others.

Of coins, casts and medals there are over two thousand. British medals from Pharamond to Louis Phillippe; 85 antique Roman and Egyptian coins, and 176 of the middle ages.

In Sculpture there are 37 statues, statuettes, casts and busts. In painting, a "Job" by Spagnoletti, a "Madonna" by Bernharat, and portraits by Healy, Peale and Copley.

If the 120 unopened boxes of minerals were opened, it is probable that they would afford equivalents for quadrupling this part of the cabinet by exchanges. One of the boxes from the School of Mines in Paris is understood to have been sent in exchange for a single mineral—an oxide of iron. In acknowledging the receipt of this mineral, which was presented by Senator Linn, M. Dufresnoy, the chief engineer and director, says:—

"The specimen of oxide of iron, taken from the mountains of Missouri, which the Senator Linn, at your request, has sent to the School of Mines, arrived a few days since at Havre, and has already become the ornament of our collections. In the name of the council of the school I thank you for this magnificent specimen. Notwithstanding its almost gigantic dimensions (sixty-six millimetres in diameter —2.6 inches,) it is complete in all its parts. From a careful examination of it, we are led to believe that the mountains of Missouri contain masses of iron which will compete with the most beautiful mines of Danimoura, in Sweden, which furnish the iron most esteemed in Europe."

From this brief history it will be seen that the National Institute, originated nearly forty years since, as an association for the advancement of art and science; that up till 1842 as the Columbian Institute, and as the institution for the promotion of science it had continued to progress—had accumulated valuable collections at the capitol, and acquired reputation at home and abroad; that it had upon several occasions been consulted by the government with advantage in matters of science, and all this without asking or receiving any remuneration or appropriation of money. That in 1842 it was incorporated as the National Institute, and immediately thereafter large transfers were made to its cabinet from the State, War and Navy Departments, and it became the custodier of the collections of the exploring expedition, the fruits of the first voyage for purely scientific purposes which had been undertaken by the government; that its position at the capital of the nation, and the implied patronage of the government, attracted to it immediately the confidence and sympathy of all the national academies and scientific establishments of the world, and it became at once the medium of scientific correspondence and exchange between us and foreign countries; that in consequence of this expanded function the private means of the Institute, contributed principally by members resident in Washington, became entirely inadequate, and it was compelled to apply to Congress for an appropriation to enable it properly to fulfil the duty which the scientific public expected it to perform; that any appropriation has been constantly refused; while, in the meantime, another establishment, endowed by the munificence of a foreigner, and for a purpose which, though generally and oracularly stated in his last will and testament, could not, by the largest latitude of interpretation, be made to signify the support of a National Academy, has been established at the seat of government, to which

is transferred by law the reversion of all the scientific collections which have been accumulating for nearly forty years in the cabinet of the first incorporated society; and, finally, that this latter establishment, not only by neglecting to demand the public collections confided to it by law, but in its official reports* has admitted that it is not the proper agent to take charge of this property, because such is not the proper construction of the will making its endowment; and because, if even such were the case, its means are not adequate for so doing.

In this state of the case it has recently been determined by the National Institute to appeal to the liberality of individuals. It seems evident that a National Academy, accredited by the government as authority in its scientific undertakings at home, and in its correspondence abroad, is an establishment as necessary to the proprieties and courtesies of foreign and domestic administration, as any other of its consular and diplomatic arrangements. That such a function can never be decently discharged by the Smithsonian Institution will, we think, be conceded by any one who considers well the purpose for which this establishment was designed and founded among us. And if Congress be really without authority to provide for such an academy in the District of Columbia, over which it has sovereign authority, there is no other resort but to solicit assistance from munificent individuals. An effort in this direction has been made during the present year, with good hope of ultimate success; in aid whereof the present paper has been written.

Art. II.—THE COTTON TRADE: PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE.

At the opening of the present century, the imports of cotton wool into Great Britain were about 75,000 bales per annum; now the consumption of that country is 2,100,000 bales annually, while the rest of Europe, and the United States, that then had no manufactories, use about 1,900,000 more, to say nothing of the consumption of Asia. Of this 4,000,000 bales, five-sixths are the product of this country. The result of the past three years proves, that neither the existence of a war involving the chief nations of Europe, nor the fluctuations in trade consequent on its cessation, have had any effect on the demand for our great southern staple; thus establishing the fact that, next to the leading articles of human food, it has become a great and fixed necessity.

A document compiled from the very best data, by one peculiarly fitted for the task, was lately read before the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, exhibiting very important facts. The value of the cotton manufacturing industry of the world was estimated at £120,000,000 sterling, or $600,000,000. Of this amount the entire population of Great Britain consumed, in value, about $3 85 per head per annum. England exports to the United States manufactured goods at the rate of 77 cents for each

* "The income is too small properly to support more than one system of operations, and therefore the attempt to establish and sustain three departments (publishing, library and museum,) with separate ends and separate interests, must lead to inharmonious action and diminished usefulness."

* * * * * * * *

"There can be but little doubt that, in due time, ample provision will be made for a library and museum at the capital of the Union, worthy of a government whose perpetuity depends upon the virtue and intelligence of the people. It is, therefore, unwise to hamper the more important objects of the Institution by attempting to anticipate results which will eventually be produced without the expenditure of its means."—*Report of the Secretary of the S. I.*, 1852.

individual in this country, but being ourselves large manufacturers, and in view of the generally better condition of the bulk of our population, it is probable that our consumption of cotton goods will exceed that of Great Britain 50 per cent per head. England exports to her North American colonies cotton goods at the rate of $1 53 per head, per annum, for the whole population. To Russia, only at the rate of 3-5 of a cent per head; to France, 2 cents per head; to her East Indian possessions, at the rate of 18 cents; but these three last countries manufacture at home, especially France, who mainly provides for her own wants, while Russia receives goods from several sources. Estimating the population of the globe at 850,000,000, the apportionment of the whole value of manufactured goods would be about 70 cents for every inhabitant, man, woman and child.

The tendency of the age is gradually towards an equalization of the moral and physical condition of the human family. The wealthier and middle classes expend much more than heretofore in articles of taste and luxury, in household and personal adornment, whereby the artisan, mechanic, and laborer are benefited, and their condition improved. The barbarous and debased nations and tribes of the world, are fast tending towards the habits, and acquiring the tastes of civilization; the first symptom of which is the exchange of their former rude and scanty clothing for dresses of our manufactured goods.

Hence it requires neither reflection nor argument to show, that a *very small general increase* in the consumption of cotton goods, would demand a supply of the raw material beyond the *present* ability of the world to afford. A reference to table "General Import of Cotton into Gt. Britain" will show that the small product of the West Indies is almost stationary. That the same is the case with Brazil, on an average of years; the export thence, last year, was only 135,000 bales, weighing less than 200 pounds each. In Egypt, the product of the past four years has averaged about twice as much as the preceding period; and last year only 115,000 bales came from that source, weighing 250 pounds each: while the average shipments from the East Indies for the past six years, is but 340,000 bales per annum, weighing about 380 pounds each.

The main dependence of the world is on this country, which last year furnished 3,500,000 bales out of a total product of 4,200,000. As the new lands of the West come into cultivation, and the progress of our railroads brings the crop within reach of the seaboard, there will be a gradual increase of our production; but to this, even, there must be a limit, considering the nature of the climate and soil necessary; and the time may not be very far distant when we shall fail to meet the demand. Under this state of things, it is not to be wondered at that the governments of England and France are putting forth every effort to foster the cultivation of cotton in their colonies. We have, certainly, no cause for fear or jealousy in view of these efforts. Not only are we, as producers, interested, but the foreign manufacturer, the political economist, and the philanthropist, alike have taken the matter into serious consideration. We can scarcely contemplate, without emotion, the disastrous results commercially, politically, and socially, that might follow a general failure of *only one* crop in this country. There would be no reserve to fall back upon. The stock in Great Britain on 1st January last was but little larger, with a consumption of 2,100,000 bales, than it was in 1841, with a consumption of a little over 1,100,000 bales; and not half so large as the stock on January 1st, 1846. (See table "General Import of Cotton into Great Britain.")

The following tables represent the production and consumption of cotton for thirteen years, with the average quotation of middling in New Orleans for thirty-two weeks of that part of each year during which the bulk of the crop is sold. The current year is *estimated*, as regards the consumption of Europe and production of foreign countries.

CROP.

	1855–6.	1854–5.	1853–4.	1852–3.	1851–2.	1850–1.	1849–50.	1848–9.	1847–8.	1846–7.	1845–6.	1844–5.	1843–4.
United States.....	3,527,800	2,847,300	2,930,000	3,262,900	3,015,000	2,355,000	2,096,706	2,728,600	2,346,600	1,778,600	2,100,500	2,394,500	2,030,400
Other countries.....	672,200	654,000	506,000	732,700	557,100	507,300	565,164	428,400	364,600	358,600	202,100	356,100	434,700
Total	4,200,000	3,501,300	3,436,000	3,995,600	3,572,100	2,862,300	2,661,870	3,157,000	2,711,200	2,137,200	2,302,600	2,750,600	2,465,100

CONSUMPTION.

Great Britain*.....	2,100,000	2,097,000	1,967,000	1,855,000	1,896,000	1,661,400	1,513,000	1,586,300	1,504,500	1,120,300	1,561,200	1,577,600	1,427,500
United States†	652,700	593,600	610,600	671,000	603,000	404,000	487,800	518,000	531,300	428,000	422,600	389,000	346,700
Continent of Europe‡ ..	1,247,300	1,192,000	1,149,700	1,186,900	1,181,600	956,800	756,000	900,000	729,000	618,100	758,700	765,000	561,900
Total	4,000,000	3,882,600	3,727,300	3,712,900	3,680,600	3,022,200	2,756,800	3,004,300	2,765,300	2,166,400	2,742,500	2,731,600	2,336,100
Price.....	9¼	8½	8⅝	9½	7¼	11¼	11	6	6¼	10	6⅝	5 5-16	7⅜

The table below gives the distribution of the United States crop for a series of years. It will be seen that the great exodus of the negro force from east to west has not diminished the receipts at Atlantic ports so much as might have been expected; the difference being fully made up through the instrumentality of railroads, carrying not only much cotton which would reach the gulf ports, if there had been no interruption in the interior navigation, but by stimulating its production by small farmers in the interior, who have not before given any attention to it for want of facilities in reaching a market.

New Orleans.....	1,661,430	1,232,650	1,378,700	1,603,000	1,387,000	950,200	797,400	1,100,600	1,188,700	706,000	1,041,400	954,300	850,300
Mobile.....	659,740	454,600	504,300	515,400	527,000	433,600	332,800	508,000	438,300	323,500	422,000	517,200	468,000
Eastern States	1,090,600	1,079,310	936,700	1,018,600	1,039,000	925,300	935,200	1,081,200	688,900	740,800	637,100	923,000	712,100
Texas.....	116,080	80,740	110,300	83,000	62,000	45,900	31,400	38,800	30,700	8,300	.....	.....	.....
Total	3,527,850	2,847,300	2,930,000	3,220,000	3,015,000	2,355,000	2,096,800	2,728,600	2,346,600	1,778,600	2,100,500	2,394,500	2,030,400

* The commercial year of Great Britain ends on the 31st December—that of the United States on the 31st August; the result for a series of years will be the same.

† To the consumption of the United States must be added about 120,000 bales used by manufacturers in the interior, which never reaches a seaport, and if added to the table of consumption must also be included in the production.

‡ The average weight of bales shipped from this country is about 440 pounds, and from other countries about one-fourth lighter.

The next table below gives, opposite to each year, the crop of the United States, the number of bales of new crop received in New Orleans up to the 1st of September, with the date of killing frost. The remarks appended are a brief synopsis of the character of the season. Reasoning from cause to effect, the reader will be enabled to form some idea of the causes operating for or against a large crop; always bearing in mind the gradual increase in the breadth of fresh land planted in the West and Southwest.

Year.	Crop.	Bales in August.	Killing frost.	Year.	Crop.	Bales in August.	Killing frost.
1839.....	2,182,000	....	.....	1848.....	2,728,600	2,864	.....
1840.....	1,634,900	....	Nov. 19.	1849.....	2,096,700	477	Nov. 26.
1841.....	1,683,600	....	Nov. 29.	1850.....	2,355,000	67	Nov. 17.
1842.....	2,378,900	1,734	Nov. 18.	1851.....	3,015,000	3,155	Nov. 6.
1843.....	2,030,400	292	Oct. 27.	1852.....	3,262,900	5,077	Nov. 27.
1844.....	2,394,500	5,720	Nov. 14.	1853.....	2,930,000	74	.....
1845.....	2,100,500	6,846	Nov. 10.	1854.....	2,847,300	1,391	Nov. 14.
1846.....	1,778,600	140	Nov. 20.	1855.....	3,527,800	23,282	Oct. 24.
1847.....	2,346,600	1,089	Nov. 20.				

REMARKS.

1839—First large crop. Season remarkably fine throughout.

1840—Unfavorable season. Overflow of Mississippi River.

1841—Western crop good. Severe drouth in Alabama, Georgia, Florida, and Miss.

1842—Generally good season, and early picking.

1843—Late spring, rainy summer, and early frost.

1844—Very good season, and early picking. Partial overflow of Mississippi River.

1845—Mississippi River and Western crop good, and early. Drouth reduced the Eastern crop 300,000 bales.

1846—Late spring, early and general visitation of army worms; the latter destroying 400,000 to 500,000 bales.

1847—Late season, but favorable fall. The occurrence of the French Revolution put down prices, and 200,000 bales were held back in the country.

1848—Summer rainy, but fine fall; 200,000 bales brought forward of previous crop.

1849—Frost in spring, heavy rains in July, partial overflow of Mississippi River, and Red River bottoms overflowed in summer.

1850—Backward spring, picking began unusually late. Partial overflow of Mississippi River.

1851—Favorable summer, and early picking.

1852—Remarkably fine season, early picking and late frost.

1853—Late and rainy season.

1854—Backward season. About 250,000 bales kept back, by lowness of the prices, in Alabama, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Texas.

1855—Fine season. Early picking, sufficiently good to counterbalance an early frost. About 250,000 bales of last crop received. Say 50,000 bales yet behind.

The following table, to which reference has been made in a preceding page, will also be found useful:—

STATEMENT OF THE GENERAL IMPORT OF COTTON INTO GREAT BRITAIN FROM 1844 TO 1855, INCLUSIVE—OF THE QUANTITY TAKEN FOR EXPORT AND FOR HOME CONSUMPTION—AND OF THE STOCK REMAINING AT THE CLOSE OF EACH YEAR.

Whence.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
America	1,248,087	1,498,728	991,110	873,336	1,374,287	1,477,688
Brazil	112,031	110,851	83,950	110,472	100,244	163,237
East Indies.....	238,683	156,633	94,683	222,802	227,572	182,086
Egypt.....	66,208	81,380	60,668	20,667	29,023	72,727
West Indies.....	18,432	9,222	13,267	6,717	7,815	9,688
Total No of bags imp'ted.	1,683,441	1,856,814	1,243,678	1,233,994	1,738,941	1,905,426
Exp'ted to contin't & Irel'd	130,050	122,590	194,200	221,850	189,500	256,300
Taken for home consumpt.	1,435,061	1,576,724	1,564,248	1,105,994	1,505,331	1,586,782
Stock at close of each year	903,060	1,060,560	545,790	451,940	496,050	558,390

Whence.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
America	1,182,970	1,397,112	1,788,684	1,531,870	1,666,484	1,623,565
Brazil	171,364	108,593	144,214	132,443	107,393	134,762
East Indies	308,793	326,474	222,361	485,680	308,293	396,014
Egypt	79,372	64,023	189,885	105,207	81,085	114,818
West Indies	5,643	8,363	12,133	9,507	9,347	8,946
Total No. of bags imp'ted.	1,748,142	1,904,565	2,357,277	2,264,707	2,172,602	2,278,105
Exp'ted to contin't & Irel'd	272,400	268,500	282,780	349,600	316,330	316,900
Taken for home consumpt.	1,513,013	1,662,585	1,861,577	1,935,047	1,967,402	2,101,188
Stock at close of each year	521,120	494,600	657,520	717,580	626,450	486,470

The above figures show that the past year's consumption was double that of 1840. The aggregate production of the past 12 years sums up 37,287,500 bales, while the consumption has been 38,212,500; the latter being in excess of the former 925,000 bales, thus reducing the stock of new material by that much since 1845—a startling fact in view of the great interests involved.

From a reliable source of intelligence across the water, we learn that new machinery added to mills now working, together with manufactories now in process of erection, will require in 1857 about 4,000 bales of cotton per week more than the consumption of the present year, making an aggregate of nearly 45,000 bales per week. On the Continent, the extension of manufacturing power is supposed to be going on at about the same rate. Consequently prices will advance till they reach a point tending to a diminution of consumption, what that point will be we have yet to learn. Though the stock of cotton, at present, is larger in Liverpool than last year, it will be reduced very rapidly, as the imports up to the close of the year can scarcely be more than half so large as during the latter months of 1845, and perhaps not even that, in consequence of the lateness of the season and diminished receipts at our ports.

The largest crop ever made, has passed into the channels of consumption at a price per pound higher than for five years past, leaving us almost no stock in this country, say about 52,000 bales in all the ports, September 1st, the stock abroad not being more than enough to supply the demand, at present rates, beyond the first of January. The incoming crop is fully three weeks later than last season. The storms in August swept the whole of Florida, Lower and Middle Alabama, Georgia, the southern tier of counties in Mississippi, and the southern parts of South Carolina and Louisiana. The drouth has been very severe in Alabama and the Atlantic States, also in portions of Tennessee, North Mississippi, and Texas. Boll worms and the army worm have been very destructive in the country contiguous to the Mississippi and Red Rivers. Altogether the season has been most unpropitious, though up to the 1st of August it appeared unusually promising. The slight frost of September 25th would indicate the probability of a short fall. The crop must be very short; and for the sake of an *approximate estimate*, even 3,000,000 bales is considered too liberal. Prices opened 2 cents higher than last year, and will rule high through the season, notwithstanding that European freights are likely to be low. A strong element also in favor of cotton, is the fact that the grain crops are not only good here, but all over the continent of Europe, with the exception of Spain and Portugal.

Art. III.—COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER XLV.

DETROIT, MICHIGAN.

Detroit is situated on the west bank of Detroit River or strait, 18 miles above the head of Lake Erie, 302 miles west from Buffalo, and 80 miles E. S. E. of Lansing, the State capital. The city is possessed of a very superior harbor, on a fine navigable stream that never overflows its banks, and the average difference between high and low water is only 2 or 3 feet. The present site of the city was occupied by Indian villages at the period of the discovery of the country. It was visited by the French in 1610, and until 1762 was under their dominion. Detroit was founded in 1701, at which time a fort, called Pontchartrain, was erected. Although in this account of that city we intend to confine ourselves chiefly to its present condition, trade and prospects, and more especially to a review of its commerce and business for the year 1855, touching briefly on historical data, we cannot refrain from quoting the following beautiful description, from Bancroft, of Detroit and vicinity, as it was in 1763:—

"Of all the inland settlements, Detroit was the largest and most esteemed. The deep majestic river, more than half a mile broad, carrying its vast flood calmly and noiselessly between the straight and well-defined banks of its channel, imparted a grandeur to a country whose rising grounds and meadows, plains festooned with prolific wild vines, woodlands, brooks, and fountains were so mingled together that nothing was left to desire. The climate was mild and the air salubrious, good land abounded, yielding maize, wheat and every vegetable. The forests were natural parks stocked with buffaloes, deer, quails, partridges and wild turkeys. Water-fowl of delicious flavor hovered along its streams, which yielded to the angler an astonishing quantity of fish, especially the white fish, the richest and most luscious of them all. There every luxury of the table might be enjoyed by the sole expense of labor.

"This lovely and cheerful region attracted settlers, alike white men and savages; and the French had so occupied the two banks of the river, that their numbers were rated even as high as twenty-five hundred souls, of whom were five hundred men able to bear arms; three or four hundred French families. Yet an ennumeration in 1764 proved them not so numerous, with only men enough to form three companies of militia; and in 1768 the official census reported but five hundred and seventy-two souls; an account which is in harmony with the best traditions. The French dwelt on farms which were about three or four acres wide on the river, and eighty acres deep; indolent in the midst of plenty, graziers as well as tillers of the soil, and enriched by Indian traffic.

"The English fort, of which Gladuyn was commander, was a large stockade, about twenty-five feet high, and twelve hundred yards in circumference, including, perhaps, eighty houses. It stood within the limits of the present city, on the river bank, commanding a wide prospect for nine miles above and below the city."

In 1762 Detroit fell into the hands of the British, and in 1763 was ceded to the British Crown. Pontiac, a daring Indian warrior, attempted, in the latter year, a bold plan of driving every white man over the Alleghanies, and destroying all the English posts in the Northwest simultaneously. These consisted of thirteen forts, well garrisoned, streching from Niagara and Pittsburgh, along the lakes, to the Mississippi, and on the Wabash River. The plan was so secret, and the execution so prompt, that ten fell

in a single day. He, however, met with a signal defeat at Detroit. In 1778 Fort Shelby was erected by the British commandant, Major Le Noult, and bore his name until after the war of 1812, when it was named in honor of Governor Shelby, of Kentucky. By the treaty of 1783 the territory of Michigan was claimed by the Americans, but disputed by the British for a number of years. In 1796 Capt. Porter, with a detachment of the American army under Gen. Wayne, entered the city and took possession of the fort and hoisted the stars and stripes, the first American flag that was ever flung to the breeze in Michigan.

In 1802 Detroit was incorporated as a city; in 1805 it was almost entirely destroyed by fire. In 1812 it was captured by the British, and re-captured in 1813 by the Americans.

Detroit, in 1827, was the only municipal corporation in the territory of Michigan, and contained a population of about 2,000. The city was chiefly a military and fur-trading post. The inhabitants were principally native French, though there were a number of families from the Eastern States, but not more than a dozen from any foreign country. The banks of the river within view of the city were studded with wind grist mills, and flour was brought to the city and sold only in sacks. Since then time has worked great changes. The city was visited by fire again, in 1837, and an immense amount of property destroyed.

The elevation of Detroit above the river is 30 feet. The dense part of the city extends for two miles along the shore, with a width of about one mile. Bordering the river, and for 1200 feet back, the plan is rectangular; the space beyond this is divided into triangular sections by a number of avenues, which converge to an open area called the Grand Circus. There are several other public parks that adorn the city, one of which is called the Campus Martius. There are eight avenues; some of 200 feet and the others 120 feet in width. Jefferson and Woodward Avenues are the principal business streets, the former running parallel with the river, and the latter crossing at right angles. These avenues contain many fine buildings. The other streets are 60 feet wide.

Among the public buildings, we may mention as worthy of notice, the Free School, formerly occupied as a State House. It is built of brick, 60 by 90 feet. It has a portico in front, with six Ionic columns and pilasters on the sides. The dome and steeple rise to 140 feet, from which a beautiful and very extensive view of Detroit and its surroundings is obtained. The City Hall is a brick building, 100 feet by 50. The Bank of Michigan occupies a substantial stone structure which cost some $40,000. The Michigan Central Railroad Company have one of the largest freight depots in the United States, 600 feet long by 100 feet wide.

The free schools of Detroit are numerous and well conducted. An effort is being made for the establishment of a high school, in which the pupil may be fitted for the University.

The city is lighted with gas, and supplied with pure water from the Detroit River. It is forced by steam power into a reservoir having an elevation of about fifty feet, and thence is conducted through distributing pipes to the various parts of the city.

Among the literary institutions are the Historical Society, founded in 1829; the Michigan State Library Institute, founded in 1838; the Young Mens' Society for Moral and Intellectual Improvement, founded in 1832. This Institution has a library of over 1200 volumes.

There are about fifty hotels of various grades, several of which, usually denominated first class hotels, are large and extensive, constructed in modern style, with modern improvements. The hotels of Detroit enjoy a high reputation for comfort, neatness, and the excellence of their fare.

The first newspaper in Detroit was called the "Michigan Essay, or Imperial Observer," and was established in 1809, by Rev. Gabriel Richard. The "Detroit Gazette" was started in 1817, by John P. Sheldon. There are now about a dozen papers issued.

The first steamboat that navigated the great lakes was the "Walk in the Water," Capt. Jedediah Rogers. She arrived at Detroit, for the first time, May 20th, 1819. The following notice of a trip to Mackinaw appeared at that date in a New York city paper:—

"The swift steamboat "Walk in the Water," is intended to make a voyage early in the summer, from Buffalo, on Lake Erie, to Michilimackinack, on Lake Huron, for the conveyance of company. The trip has so near a resemblance to the famous Argonautic expedition in the heroic ages of Greece that expectation is quite alive on the subject. Many of our most distinguished citizens are said to have already engaged their passage for this splendid adventure."

Thus commenced steam navigation on the lakes. Now Detroit alone owns from fifty to sixty steamers, besides steam propellers, varying in size from the tiny fifteen ton craft to the magnificent boat of two thousand tons.

The population of Detroit at various periods, from 1820, was as follows:—

1820....1,442 1830....2,222 1840....9,102 1850....21,019 1854....40,373

The population of the contiguous city suburbs is not taken into account. It is said that the foreign population, or a portion of them, regard the operation of the census as a preparatory process to tax them according to their numeration, and it is now known that the census taken was quite below the true number.

The following is a recapitulation of the statistics of the city, prepared and reported to the Board of Water Commissioners by their Secretary, June 30th, 1855, at which time the city contained:—

*Families	6,328	Dye Houses	5
Offices	175	Churches	28
Boiler Manufactories	4	Hospital	1
Saw Manufactory	1	Private Schools	24
Tanneries and Morroco Factories	9	Railroad Depots	2
Potteries	2	Breweries	17
Soda and Small Beer Factories	2	Malt Houses	2
Jail	1	Boarding Houses	131
Fire Engine Houses	9	Taverns	49
Private Meat Markets	24	Iron Machine Shops	10
Stone and Marble Works	10	Locomotive Manufactories	2
Stationary Steam Engines	46	Flour Mills	3
Rectifying Distilleries	2	Steam Tobacco Factories	6
Stores	335	Gas Works	1
Mechanics' Shops	343	Printing Offices	11
Railroad Car Factories	2	Banks	4
Saw Mills	6	Orphans Homes	2
Plaster Mill	1	Public Markets	2
Bakeries	21	Soap and Candle Factories	9

* This number more properly represents the number of housekeepers than the number of families. Families boarding (a considerable number,) are not set down.

Public Street Sprinklers	2	Public Halls	9
Groceries	260	Theatres	2
Iron Foundries	7	Public Schools	25
Steam Planing, Door, Sash, Blind and Furniture Factories	12	Warehouses	24
Burr Mill Stone Factory	1	Lard Oil Factory	1
Water Works	1	Wheat Elevators	2
		Public Bathing Establishments	4

There are, say 100 families, a number of saw mills, tanneries, breweries, a copper smelting works, dry dock in the suburbs of Detroit, which should be taken into account in estimating the business of the city.

The annual review of the commerce of Detroit, as prepared by M. D. HAMILTON, the commercial editor of the *Advertiser*, which we here subjoin in a condensed form, gives a full and reliable account of the commerce and industry of that city for the last two or three years :—

FLOUR. The receipts of flour in Detroit, via the Michigan Central Railroad, in 1855, show an increase of 27,705 bbls. over 1854—the receipts for 1855 being 361,356 bbls., and for 1854, 333,651 bbls. The receipts by the Detroit and Milwaukie Railway and teams from the surrounding country, we have not the means of ascertaining, but a very close estimate may be formed. The shipments during the year were 640,393 bbls., to which add 70,000 bbls. for the consumption of the city, (which is probably an under-estimate,) and we have 710,393 bbls. for the actual receipts ; from this amount subtract the receipts by the Michigan Central Railroad, and the remainder, 349,037 bbls., will not vary far from the receipts by teams and by the Detroit and Milwaukie Railway. The shipments of flour, in barrels, from Detroit in 1855, show a large increase over the shipments of 1854, as may be seen by the following :—

1855.....	640,393	1854.....	337,143	Increase.....	303,250

This increase is easily accounted for by the fact that in 1854 the crop in the Western States was a short one, while in 1855 it was most abundant, and a larger proportion of the crop was manufactured into flour before being shipped than in former years. Owing to the injury which the wheat crop received by wet weather during the time of harvest, the transactions in flour at this point during the year, were considerably less than in 1854, and a larger proportion was sent forward on the owner's account. Notwithstanding this, the market was, as a whole, steady and active, and prices ranged higher than during the previous year. The highest prices paid were in June, when good Michigan flour sold at $9 50 a $9 75 per bbl. In September there was a decline to a pretty low figure, but it remained so only a few days, when a reaction took place, and the tendency then continued upward until towards the close of the season, when it again declined, and at the last of December the lowest prices of the year were reached.

The following table will show the prices of flour in the Detroit market on the 1st and 15th of each month for the past three years :—

		1853.	1854.	1855.
January	1	$4 25 a 4 30	$6 09 a 6 12	$7 75 a 8 00
	15	4 25 a 4 30	6 12 a 6 25	7 75 a 7 87
February	1	4 12 a 4 25	7 12 a 7 25	7 75 a 7 87
	15	4 00 a 4 06	7 00 a 7 12	7 75 a 7 87
March	1	4 00 a 4 06	6 12 a 6 25	7 75 a 7 87
	15	3 95 a 4 00	6 25 a 6 50	7 75 a 8 00
April	1	3 75 a 4 00	6 25 a 6 50	8 00 a 8 12
	15	3 90 a 4 00	6 50 a 6 75	8 62 a 8 75
May	1	3 87 a 4 00	7 25 a 7 50	9 25 a 9 50
	15	3 87 a 4 00	8 12 a 8 25	9 37 a 9 50
June	1	4 15 a 4 20	8 37 a 8 62	9 37 a 9 50
	15	4 12 a 4 20	8 75 a 9 00	9 50 a 9 75
July	1	4 00 a 4 06	7 75 a 8 00	9 25 a 9 50
	15	4 12 a 4 20	6 50 a 7 00	8 75 a 9 00
August	1	4 25 a 4 37	7 75 a 8 00	8 50 a 8 75
	15	4 65 a 4 75	7 75 a 8 00	8 50 a 8 75

		1853.	1854.	1855.
September	1	$4 70 a 4 75	$8 50 a 9 00	$7 00 a 7 50
	15	5 25 a 5 33	7 87 a 8 00	6 25 a 6 75
October	1	5 40 a 5 50	6 50 a 6 75	6 50 a 6 75
	15	5 70 a 5 75	7 00 a 7 50	7 00 a 7 25
November	1	5 62 a 5 70	7 87 a 8 00	7 50 a 7 62
	15	5 75 a 6 00	7 50 a 7 75	7 37 a 7 50
December	1	5 75 a 6 00	7 75 a 8 00	7 50 a 7 62
	15	5 62 a 5 75	7 50 a 7 75	6 25 a 6 75
	31	6 00 a 6 12	7 75 a 8 00	6 25 a 6 50

WHEAT. The shipments of wheat, in bushels, from Detroit for the last two years, are as follows:—

1854.....	897,159	1855.....	737,880	Decrease.....	159,279

This decrease is partially owing to the fact, as above stated, that a larger proportion of the crop was manufactured before being shipped, than in years previous. The unmerchantable condition of the wheat during the fall months, when the greater proportion of the crop is generally marketed, also caused a large falling off in shipments. The receipts of wheat per Michigan Central Railroad, in 1854, were 644,949 bushels, against 346,534 bushels in 1855—showing a falling off of 298,415 bushels, or nearly one-half. The receipts by the Detroit and Milwaukie Railway were larger than ever before, as the road was opened in October to Fentonville, 25 miles beyond its former terminus, and the crop in the northern counties being in a much more marketable condition than in any other part of the State, a larger proportion found its way to market before the close of navigation. The market has been considerably depressed during the entire year, considering the large crop, although prices have ruled high. Wheat, as well as flour, ruled higher during the year 1855 than during any previous year since 1838. In the fall of 1838 the highest market price for wheat was $2 25 per bushel, and during June last the same high price was reached. These are the highest prices ever paid for wheat in Michigan. In 1842, and a number of years thereafter, wheat was a perfect drug upon the market. The lowest market price ever reached in Michigan was in the fall of 1842, when wheat was sold by the farmers at 44 cents per bushel, and, in many instances, taking "store pay" at that.

The following table exhibits the price of wheat in the Detroit market upon the 1st and 15th of each month for the past three years:—

		1853.	1854.	1855.
January	1	$0 90 a 1 00	$1 30 a 1 35	$1 65 a 1 75
	15	0 90 a 1 00	1 37 a 1 40	1 75 a 1 80
February	1	0 90 a 1 00	1 56 a 1 62	1 75 a 1 80
	15	0 85 a 0 95	1 56 a 1 62	1 70 a 1 75
March	1	0 85 a 0 95	1 40 a 1 45	1 65 a 1 70
	15	0 85 a 0 90	1 35 a 1 40	1 65 a 1 70
April	1	0 80 0 0 85	1 25 a 1 30	1 70 a 1 75
	15	0 87 a 0 90	1 30 a 1 35	1 90 a 2 00
May	1	0 90 a 0 98	1 50 a 1 56	2 00 a 2 12
	15	0 96 a 1 00	1 75 a 1 87	2 12 a 2 25
June	1	0 96 a 1 00	1 75 a 1 80	2 12 a 2 25
	15	0 96 a 1 00	1 87 a 1 90	2 12 a 2 25
July	1	0 96 a 1 00	1 50 a 1 55	2 12 a 2 25
	15	0 98 a 1 03	1 30 a 1 35	2 00 a 2 12
August	1	0 98 a 1 05	1 35 a 1 40	1 80 a 1 90
	15	1 00 a 1 05	1 45 a 1 50	1 60 a 1 75
September	1	1 05 a 1 10	1 75 a 1 80	1 25 a 1 35
	15	1 10 a 1 15	1 55 a 1 60	1 18 a 1 30
October	1	1 13 a 1 18	1 38 a 1 45	1 20 a 1 40
	15	1 20 a 1 23	1 40 a 1 45	1 35 a 1 62
November	1	1 18 a 1 24	1 75 a 1 80	1 45 a 1 62
	15	1 30 a 1 35	1 63 a 1 75	1 35 a 1 50
December	1	1 20 a 1 25	1 75 a 1 80	1 45 a 1 62
	15	1 25 a 1 30	1 62 a 1 65	1 45 a 1 62
	31	1 30 a 1 35	1 63 a 1 70	1 25 a 2 50

CORN. The receipts of corn by the Michigan Central Railroad, during 1855, were 365,741 bushels less than during the previous year, while the shipments from this point Eastward were considerably greater. There was, however, at the opening of navigation last year, a large amount of corn in store in Detroit, which had accumulated through the winter, while at the present time the stock is very small. The following figures will show the number of bushels shipped Eastward for two years :—

1855.....	629,895	1854.....	587,489	Increase.....	42,405

Michigan is not so great a corn-growing State as some of her sister States in the West; therefore the amount of corn which changes hands in this market is small, in comparison with some of the other lake cities. A large proportion, however, of the shipments Eastward change hands at this port. There has been a good home demand during the year, and prices reached a higher figure than for many years previously.

The table which follows shows the prices upon the 1st and 15th of each month during the past three years. The inside figures exhibit the prices for shipping parcels :—

		1853.	1854.	1855.			1853.	1854.	1855.
January	1..	48 a 50	46 a 52	55 a 60	July	15..	53 a 56	50 a 55	75 a 77
	15..	48 a 50	46 a 52	60 a 65	August	1..	60 a 64	50 a 54	73 a 75
February	1..	50 a 52	55 a 60	60 a 65		15..	63 a 67	50 a 54	70 a 74
	15..	48 a 50	55 a 60	60 a 65	Sept.	1..	63 a 66	56 a 60	70 a 73
March	1..	48 a 50	54 a 60	00 a 60		15..	65 a 68	60 a 62	67 a 70
	15..	48 a 50	54 a 60	00 a 60	October	1..	65 a 68	60 a 62	67 a 70
April	1..	48 a 50	54 a 60	60 a 62		15..	68 a 72	60 a 62	75 a 80
	15..	48 a 50	55 a 58	65 a 70	Nov'mb'r	1..	55 a 60	60 a 62	75 a 80
May	1..	52 a 54	56 a 60	78 a 80		15..	55 a 60	60 a 62	75 a 80
	15..	56 a 60	55 a 58	83 a 85	Dec'mber	1..	55 a 60	58 a 60	70 a 75
June	1..	56 a 60	57 a 60	83 a 85		15..	50 a 58	58 a 60	65 a 70
	15..	56 a 58	57 a 60	80 a 83		31..	46 a 52	55 a 60	58 a 62
July	1..	53 a 56	57 a 60	77 a 80					

OATS. In consequence of a light crop of oats in 1855, the shipments from this port were very light, being 147,659 bushels less than in 1854. The receipts by the Michigan Central Railroad were 180,152 bushels less. The home demand is growing larger with each succeeding year, and whenever there is a light crop, it precludes the possibility of shipping to any considerable extent. Owing to a light stock remaining over from 1854, prices opened high at the commencement of the season, and continued to advance until August 1st, when the high price of 60 cents per bushel was reached. From that time prices began to decline, and the downward tendency continued until September, when 30 cents was the ruling figure. Again the tendency was upward, and at the close of the year prices were the same as at its commencement.

The following table exhibits the prices on the 1st and 15th of each month for the past three years :—

		1853.	1854.	1855.			1853.	1854.	1855
January	1...	45	34	35	July	15...	38	38	54
	15...	37	34	38	August	1...	44	37	60
February	1...	40	40	37		15...	47	37	56
	15...	37	37	38	Septemb'r	1...	37	36	30
March	1...	37	36	38		15...	37	36	30
	15...	37	36	38	October	1...	37	40	30
April	1...	37	35	40		15...	37	40	32
	15...	38	35	45	November	1...	37	40	32
May	1...	42	37	56		15...	34	37	35
	15...	44	40	56	December	1...	36	37	40
June	1...	44	43	56		15...	36	35	37
	15...	43	40	56		31...	34	35	35
July	1...	41	40	56					

Butter. Although the soil and climate of Michigan are eminently adapted to grazing and dairy purposes, yet but little attention is paid to butter making. The raising and marketing of wheat, coarse grains, vegetables, and wool, seem to absorb almost the entire attention of the farming community. The receipts by the Central Railroad for 1855 are shown to be 715,623 lbs., against 418,613 lbs., showing an increase of 297,010 lbs. The shipments in 1855 exceed those of 1854 by 2,825 kegs and firkins and 3 barrels.

The following table exhibits the wholesale prices of firkin and roll butter for three years:—

	1853.	1854.	1855.		1853.	1854.	1855.
January 1..	15 a 18	18 a 24	16 a 22	July 15..	10 a 14	12 a 18	12 a 16
15..	13 a 17	16 a 22	16 a 22	August 1..	10 a 15	12 a 18	12 a 16
February 1..	12 a 16	15 a 20	16 a 20	15..	10 a 15	12 a 18	12 a 16
15..	12 a 16	14 a 18	15 a 20	Sept. 1..	11 a 16	15 a 20	13 a 18
March 1..	12 a 16	14 a 19	13 a 20	15..	15 a 20	15 a 20	14 a 20
15..	12 a 16	14 a 19	13 a 20	October 1..	15 a 20	15 a 20	15 a 20
April 1..	12 a 15	14 a 18	13 a 20	15..	18 a 22	15 a 20	16 a 22
15..	12 a 14	14 a 18	13 a 20	Nov'mb'r 1..	18 a 22	15 a 20	16 a 20
May 1..	12 a 15	14 a 18	15 a 20	15..	18 a 24	15 a 20	16 a 20
15..	13 a 17	13 a 17	14 a 19	Decemb'r 1..	18 a 24	15 a 20	16 a 20
June 1..	13 a 17	12 a 16	14 a 18	15..	18 a 24	15 a 20	17 a 23
15..	12 a 15	11 a 15	13 a 17	31..	18 a 24	16 a 20	17 a 23
July 1..	10 a 14	12 a 18	13 a 17				

Pork and Hogs. During the pork packing season of 1854–55, a greater quantity of pork was packed in this city than usual, and the shipments Eastward during the ensuing season exceed those of the previous season by 21,983 bbls., while the receipts by the Central Railroad show a falling off of 9,371 bbls. Prices of dressed hogs were low, and as mess pork rapidly advanced after the close of the packing season, dealers were enabled to realize large profits. During the packing season pork could be had at $13 a $14 per bbl. In October the price had reached $24, being an advance of $9 per bbl. During the season just closed, owing to the very high prices of dressed hogs, but little pork has been packed in this market, and as a consequence the supply will mostly have to be drawn from other places.

The following table exhibits the prices of mess pork for three years:—

	1853.	1854.	1855.
January 1.....	$16 50 a	$13 50 a 14 00	$14 00 a 14 50
15.....	16 75 a	13 50 a 14 00	14 00 a 14 50
February 1.....	16 75 a	14 00 a 14 50	14 00 a 14 50
15.....	16 50 a	14 50 a 15 00	14 00 a 14 50
March 1.....	16 50 a	14 00 a 14 50	13 00 a 14 00
15.....	16 50 a	13 50 a 14 00	13 00 a 14 00
April 1.....	16 50 a	13 50 a 14 00	13 00 a 14 00
15.....	16 50 a	14 50 a 15 00	14 00 a 14 50
May 1.....	16 50 a	14 50 a 15 00	16 00 a 16 50
15.....	16 50 a	14 50 a 15 00	16 00 a 16 50
June 1.....	16 00 a	14 50 a 15 00	17 50 a 18 00
15.....	15 50 a 16 00	14 00 a 14 50	17 50 a 18 00
July 1.....	15 50 a 16 00	14 00 a 14 50	19 50 a 20 00
15.....	15 50 a 16 00	13 50 a 14 00	..... a 20 00
August 1.....	16 00 a	14 00 a 14 50	..... a 20 00
15	16 00 a	14 00 a 14 50	..... a 20 00
September 1.....	16 00 a	14 00 a 15 50	..... a 21 00
15.....	16 00 a	14 00 a 14 50	..... a 21 00
October 1.....	16 00 a 16 50	14 00 a 14 50	..... a 24 00
15.....	16 50 a 17 00	14 00 a 14 50	..... a 24 00
November 1.....	16 50 a 17 00	14 00 a 14 50	..... a 24 00
15.....	16 50 a 17 00	14 00 a 14 50	..... a 21 00
December 1.....	16 50 a 17 00	14 00 a 14 50	..... a 21 00
15.....	13 50 a 14 00	13 50 a 14 00	..... a 20 00
31.....	13 50 a 14 00	14 00 a 14 50	..... a 20 00

In 1855 the receipts of dressed hogs by the Central Railroad were 10,487,942 lbs., against 5,028,396 lbs. in 1854, showing an increase in receipts in 1855 of 5,459,546 lbs., considerably over one-half. The shipments are shown in numbers and not in lbs. The shipments for two years were as follows:—

1855.....	31,119	1854.....	8,483	Increase.....	22,636

The increase, it will be seen, is nearly three times as great as the total shipments of 1854. The number of live hogs received at this port has also been immense. The number passed through this place during the year was 122,030. The following table shows the prices of dressed hogs during the packing season for the past three years:—

		1853.	1854.	1855.
January	1.....	$6 25 a 6 37	$4 25 a 4 50	$4 25 a 4 50
	15.....	6 25 a 6 50	4 12 a 4 50	4 37 a 4 50
February	1.....	6 25 a 6 75	5 00 a 5 25	4 44 a 4 75
	15.....	6 37 a 6 75	4 50 a 5 00	4 25 a 4 75
March	1.....	6 50 a 6 75	4 50 a 5 00	4 50 a 5 00
November	1.....	.... a	5 00 a 5 50	6 50 a 7 00
	15.....	.... a	4 50 a 5 00	6 50 a 7 00
December	1.....	4 87 a 5 00	4 00 a 4 25	6 50 a 7 00
	15.....	4 25 a 4 50	3 75 a 4 00	6 15 a 6 50
	31.....	4 25 a 4 50	4 25 a 4 50	5 87 a 6 25

White Fish. One of the largest and most important items in the commerce of Detroit is the trade in white fish. From the head of Lake Erie to the head of Lake Superior, including Lake Michigan, during the fall and spring months, the fisheries form an important branch of our Western commerce. But probably there is no place of the same area along our lakes and rivers which is so valuable in this particuler as the river contiguous to this city. From Fighting Island to the northern point of Belle Isle, a distance of 17 miles, there is one complete fishery, from which large numbers of fish are yearly taken. The cost of taking them, when the run is fine, is very light, and fishermen realize large profits. They are known through all the States, and are esteemed among the choicest delicacies to be had in any market. The large demand creates a corresponding valuation, and in every city they become the first brand of fish sought. The river fish are generally larger, fatter, and better flavored than those of the lakes, and are therefore always in better demand, and always command better prices. In New York, Boston, New Orleans, and even San Francisco, the Detroit River white fish are eagerly sought for.

The catch of the past season was remarkably good. At the fisheries (about 50 in number) between Fighting Island and Belle Isle, over 7,000 barrels, or some 700,000 fish have been taken. About half of these have been sold fresh, at an average of 11 cents each, bringing in a revenue of $3,850. The remaining portion are mostly held by the fishermen until navigation shall open to them the eastern and southern trade. These 3,500 barrels, when sold, will net the holders about $30,000, or in the neighborhood of eight or nine dollars per barrel. The cost of catching, cleaning, packing and shipping, have been far less this season than on many previous years, and therefore the profits will be much greater, because the demand will not be at all diminished. From the fisheries upon Belle Isle about 7,000 fish were taken, a majority of which were sold fresh. The remainder of them were caught below the city, mostly upon the American side of the river.

The method of catching fish here in the river differs somewhat from the means adopted for lake fishing. There gill nets are the principal agency employed, while seins are the instruments here used.

A correspondent of the New York *Herald*, writing from Wyandotte, a few miles below this city, says:—"The number of barrels caught annually, in the lake fisheries, is nearly as follows:—

	Bbls.		Bbls.
Lake Superior	3,000	Lake Huron	14,000
Lake Michigan	15,000	Lake Erie	3,000
			35,000
Detroit River white fish			7,000
Total			42,000

"These are sold at an average price of $11 per barrel—the aggregate amount of sales being $462,000, or nearly half a million dollars. Probably one-sixth of all the fish caught in Lakes Michigan, Huron and Superior, are trout,—the remainder being white fish. They are commonly caught by 'gill nets,' set some 10 miles distant from the shore. Large quantities of fish are taken from the Detroit River, which they ascend, from Lake Erie, to spawn. On their return to the lake they are captured. The number of fisheries on the river is fifty.

"In some of the rivers that flow into the lakes enormous quantities of pickerel are caught. Not less than 1,000 barrels are taken annually from Fox River, Wisconsin; from Saginaw River, Michigan, 1,500 barrels; St. Clair River, Michigan, 1,500 barrels; Maumee River, Ohio, 3,000 barrels, and an equal quantity of bass, mullet, &c, making a total of 10,000 barrels, which are sold for $8 50 per barrel, or $85,000 in the aggregate. The annual product of the lakes and tributary rivers is thus shown:—

	Bbls.	Value.
The Lakes	35,000	$385,000
Detroit River	7,000	77,000
Other rivers	10,000	85,000
Total	52,000	$547,000

The writer of the above, although a practical fisherman, undoubtedly shoots wide of the mark in some of his estimates. He puts down the average price per barrel at $11, which is all of $2 per barrel too high. The average price of white fish, from first hands, at this point, cannot be safely estimated at over $9 per bbl., while the other varieties of fish, such as pickerel, trout, siscoweit, herring, &c., (of which there are large numbers caught,) are uniformly from one to two dollars per barrel less.

He also estimates the total annual catch of fish in all the lake and river fisheries at 52,000 barrels. This estimate is considerably too low. One firm in this city handled during last year 7,000 barrels, which, according to his estimate, would be over one-eighth of the entire catch. The shipments eastward from this port during last year, were 16,797 barrels. The consumption of fresh fish in this city and vicinity is not less than 4,000 barrels annually, to which add 1,000 barrels for home consumption, of salted fish, and we have nearly one half the above estimate handled in Detroit. We are of the opinion that the entire catch of the lakes and tributary rivers will reach nearly 75,000 barrels, which at an average of $8 50 per barrel, would net the producers $637,500, or about $90,000 more than the above estimate.

Coal. The following figures will show the receipts, in tons, of coal in this city for two years:—

1855	49,136	1854	25,153	Increase	23,983

The shipments by lakes, in tons, for two years are as follows:—

1855	1,568	1854	160	Increase	1,408

Deducting the shipments from the receipts we have for consumption here, in 1854, 24,993 tons, against 47,568 tons in 1855, showing an increase in the latter year of 22,575 tons. This amount, however, is larger than the actual increase in consumption, as at the present time the stock left over from last year's receipts is

much larger than the stock left over a year since from the receipts of 1854. The annual demand for, and consumption of coal, it will be readily seen, is increasing very fast. The range in prices in this market is from $7 to $12 per ton for anthracite, and from $3 50 to $6 50 for the various varieties of bituminous coal.

Within a distance of less than 100 miles of this city are extensive fields of a superior quality of coal, and which will probably soon be opened and made available. The Detroit and Milwaukie Railway, when completed, will pass directly through the coal districts and the coal fields belonging to the "Michigan Coal Company," which is now fully organized, will soon supply coal, not only for the consumption of the city, but also for export, at much cheaper rates than it has heretofore been obtained. The late Dr. Houghton, State Geologist, made thorough explorations of the coal districts, and from his reports to the Legislature, it appears that the coal bearing rocks extend through nine counties of the State, a distance of nearly 100 miles, and that the same stratum of coal belonging to the lower coal basin is exhibited to view at three different points, viz., at Barry, in Jackson county, at Red Cedar River, in Ingham county, 35 miles from Barry, and at Shiawassee River, 25 miles from Red Cedar River, occupying a line at least 60 miles in extent. In 1852, Col. R. R. Lansing, President of the Michigan Coal Company, laid bare the coal bed at Red Cedar River to the extent of upwards of a thousand square feet, and removed to the surface about 60 tons of coal, 14 tons of which was transported to Detroit, subjected to thorough tests, and was found to be well adapted to all the various purposes for which bituminous coal is generally used. Dr. Adrian R. Terry, who tested it for domestic use, certifies that he "never, in the western country, burned a coal which gave so clear and brilliant a flame, and of which the coke (after the bitumen was burned out) made so permanent and hot a fire. It leaves but an insignificant amount of ashes or earthy residue in comparison with any coal I have ever burned in this region." Mr. A. G. Bradford, of Pennsylvania, a scientific gentleman of high attainments, has recently explored the three coal fields which belong to the Michigan Coal Company, and in his report to the Board of Directors, says: "The coal found at each place is of extraordinary purity, approaching in quality Cannel coal; and blending in its component parts all the necessary elements for every variety of use. From my coal explorations in several States of the Union, to which I have devoted the most of my attention for the last fifteen years of my life, I can safely say that I never saw coal at the out crop of such extraordinary quality and purity, and so free generally from sulphur and other impurities."

The fields belonging to the company are located, one upon the Central Railroad, one upon the Detroit and Milwaukie Railway, and one upon the Detroit and Lansing Plank Road. As the company are about to commence active mining operations, a new source of wealth will be opened, which cannot but result in the most substantial benefits both to the city and State at large, as well as to the company.

Wool. The wool clip of Michigan for 1855 has been estimated at 2,948,821 pounds. Of this amount 1,100,000 pounds were purchased by Detroit dealers, for which the sum of $366,000 was paid, or about an average of 30 cents per pound. The receipts of wool (in lbs.) by the Michigan Central Railroad for the last two years, are shown as follows:—

1855.....	2,061,101	1854	1,347,397	Excess in 1855....	713,704

Of the 2,061,101 pounds received in 1855, all except 346,127 pounds was received from way stations. The shipments from this port (in bales) for two years are as follows:—

1855.....	16,818	1854.....	11,838	Excess in 1855	4,980

The shipments are given in bales, the weight in most instances not being entered on the shipper's books. These bales will vary in weight from 100 to 200 lbs., the most of them, however, weighing from 150 to 200 pounds each. Estimating them at 150 pounds each, which is probably a low average, the shipments from

this place in 1855 would reach 2,422,700 pounds, nearly as much as the entire clip of the State. Owing to the low prices which prevailed in 1854, a considerable proportion of the clip of that season was held over by the farmers; but in 1855 the prices, although but little higher, seemed more satisfactory, and almost the entire clip, together with what was left in first hands of the clip of 1854, was brought out. The prices of 1855, though not high, were without fluctuation, and it is believed that very little, if any, of last season's clip is now remaining either in first or second hands. The following table will exhibit the prices of wool in this market during the seasons of 1853, 1854, and 1855 :—

		1853.	1854.	1855.			1853.	1854.	1855.
June	1..	38 a 54	20 a 37	20 a 31	August	1..	38 a 48	20 a 37	22 a 37
	15..	38 a 54	20 a 37	20 a 34		15..	37 a 48	20 a 37	22 a 37
July	1..	38 a 50	20 a 37	22 a 36	Sept'mb'r	1..	37 a 48	20 a 37	22 a 37
	15..	38 a 48	20 a 37	22 a 37		15..	37 a 48	20 a 37	22 a 37

Lumber. The following figures will show the amount of lumber and lath manufactured in this city during the last two years :—

	Lumber, ft.	Lath, ps.
1854	35,875,846	14,691,900
1855	36,754,549	15,617,000
Increase	876,703	925,100

The receipts of lumber and lath by vessel from St. Clair and Saginaw lumber country, is shown as follows :—

	Lumber, ft.	Lath, ps.
1854	10,053,488	2,428,950
1855	6,889,456	2,142,700
Decrease	3,164,032	286,250

The shipments from this port to other lake ports during the two years, are as follows :—

	Lumber, ft.	Lath, ps.
1854	19,789,021	8,707,237
1855	21,235,432	9,549,900
Increase	1,446,411	842,663

The combined manufactures and receipts of lumber and lath for the year reach 43,642,000 feet lumber, and 17,759,700 pieces lath.

The shipments by lake and by the Michigan Central Railroad combined were 24,825,984 feet lumber. and 11,054,626 pieces lath. The total sales of the year by the various dealers in the city were 41,688,334 feet lumber, and 18,055,900 pieces lath. From this deduct the shipments, and we have left 16,862,350 feet lumber, and 7,001,274 pieces lath, which have been consumed in the city, besides quite a large amount which was received by the various plank-roads and by the Detroit and Milwaukie Railway, of which we have no means of making an estimate.

Imports and Exports. The following table shows the amount of some of the principal articles of import at Detroit during the years 1854 and 1855 :—

	1854.	1855.		1854.	1855.
Salt.....bbls.	96,651	79,128	Pig-iron .....tons	1,046	1,961
Salt.....bags	86,293	69,400	Railroad iron	744	46,643
Water lime....bbls.	14,932	13,484	Coal.....	25,153	49,136
Stucco lime	60	75	Lumber.....ft.	10,053,488	6,889,456
Cement.....	300	.....	Lath .....pcs.	2,428,950	2,142,700
Plaster.....	15,500	10,500	Shingles.....M.	5,100	2,743
Crude plaster..tons	336	3,000			

The above shows quite a falling off in the receipt of salt, which is accounted for by the fact that the stock now on hand here, and throughout the country, is very light—a number of cargoes which were on their way at the close of navigation not having arrived.

The following table shows the shipments from this port, by steam and sail vessels and by the Great Western Railway, during the years 1854 and 1855 :—

	1854.	1855.		1854.	1855.
Ashes, casks.....	1,905	1,983	Liquors, casks.....	7,980	7,255
Ale & beer, bbls...	3,800	2,747	Hides, No.....	17,103	19,442
Apples	2,394	2,275	Hides & skins, bndls.	1,636	282
Apples, bags.....	73	887	Horns, pkgs.....	154	83
Barley, bush.....	2,529	2,671	Hair, bales.....	212	154
Beans, bags.....	228	582	Hemp	462	201
Beans, bbls.....	383	80	Hops.....	.....	54
Beef.....	4,679	11,070	Hay, tons	240	977
Beef, tierces	....	2,284	Hams, &c., No.....	9,223	1,451
Butter, bbls.....	70	73	" bbls...	1,471	....
Butter, kegs & fir...	2,279	5,124	" casks...	2,330	661
Beeswax, lbs.....	1,000	.....	Hogs, dressed, No..	8,483	31,119
Beeswax, casks. ...	8	11	Hogs, live	15,411	122,030
B'k wheat flour, bags	40	69	Horses.....	22	35
Buckwheat, bbls...	.....	17	Horse rakes	100	.....
Broom-corn, bales .	382	4,679	Iron, tons.....	478	581
Bones, tons.....	.....	44	Lard, bbls.....	6,209	3,804
Brick, No	.....	46,000	" tierces.....	.....	223
Corn, bush.	587,489	629,895	" kegs	626	303
Corn meal, bbls. ..	1,880	1,942	Lead, kegs	.....	1,616
Corn-meal, bags...	956	2,620	Lead, pigs.....	.....	1,137
Clover, &c.....	3,079	13,821	Leather, rolls	2,363	2,192
Clover, &c., bbls...	482	205	Lumber, ft.....	19,786,021	21,235,432
Cheese, boxes.....	782	795	Lath, pcs.....	8,707,237	9,549,900
Cheese, casks	38	43	Molasses, bbls.....	459	654
Candles, boxes	.....	2,103	Molasses, hhds	.....	268
Cement, bbls.....	50	125	Malt, bags.....	318	558
Crackers.....	62	79	Miscel. mer., tons..	14,365	19,077
Cranberries	341	364	Miscel. mer., pkgs...	.....	41,800
Cider.....	. ...	55	Nails, kegs	873	3,549
Cedar posts, No...	.....	125	Oats, bush.....	228,450	80,791
Carriages, &c.	73	87	Onions	1,254	1,209
Coal, tons	160	1,568	Oil, bbls.....	503	745
Copper	846	.....	Pork	24,668	45,880
Copper, bbls.....	.....	198	Pork, tierces.....	.....	580
Cattle, head	7,372	16,268	Provisions, bbls....	.....	1,003
Dried fruit, bbls...	2,239	816	Pickles	27	111
" bags...	153	83	Plaster	318	322
Deer skins, bundles.	.....	1,305	Potatoes, bush	194,537	64,858
Eggs, hbls.....	557	492	Peas, bags.....	40	380
Empty barrels, &c.	982	3,394	Powder, kegs	.....	64
Elm bark, lbs.....	.....	27,619	Rye, bush.....	5,395	1,552
Flour, bbls.	337,143	639,535	Rags, lbs.....	559,116	15,895
Flour, bags.....	.....	1,715	Rags, bales	.....	2,428
Fish, bbls	18,595	10,956	Shorts, bags	15,292	5,711
Fish, ½ bbls.	.....	11,682	Soap, boxes	.....	2,467
Furs, pkgs.....	524	710	Sugar, hhds	136	799
Feathers, bales....	.....	13	Sugar, bbls.....	1,193	1,822
Fruit-trees, &c. bndls	569	235	Salt.....	9,523	10,353
Glass, boxes	.....	1,001	Salt, bags.	1,895	5,251
Grindstones, No....	.....	1,832	Saleratus, bbls	65	79
Game, pkgs.	254	130	Salts	117	.....
Game, tons	30	.....	Sheep, live, No.....	3,364	4,935
Grease, bbls	.....	96	Sheep, dressed	83	79
Ginseng, bales.....	39	.....	Sheep pelts, bndls..	.....	1,200

	1854.	1855.
Sour krout, bbls....	233	266
Stoneware, pcs....	.....	488
Steam engines, No.	27	34
Stoves.....	305	606
Shingles, M.....	4,685	1,715
Staves.....	359	2,418
Tallow, bbls.....	456	1,381
Tar.....	.....	75
Tobacco, &c., pkgs..	1,358	7,507
Tea.....	.....	1,328
Turnips, bush.....	1,675	367
Vinegar, bbls.....	311	479
Varnish.....	.....	165
Wheat, bush.....	897,159	737,880
Wool, bales.....	11,838	16,818
Water lime, &c. bbls	4,135	2,199
Wheelbarrows, No.	295	.....

The following table exhibits the shipments Eastwardly by the Michigan Central Railroad Company for two years. The items are all included in the above table, but the appended table will be of interest as exhibiting the shipments Eastward by this company. The articles enumerated were all received over the Central Railroad:—

	1854.	1855.
Ashes, casks.....	310	106
Apples, bbls.....	....	106
Beef.....	1,866	8,865
Beef, tierces.....	....	1,785
Butter, kegs.....	1,341	3,705
Butter, bbls.....	....	68
Broom-corn, bales....	382	5,467
Buffalo robes.....	....	391
Bacon, boxes.....	....	687
Beans, bags.....	....	153
Barley.....	1,124	155
Corn, bush.....	148,734	....
Corn, bags.....	117	2,190
Candles, boxes.....	....	200
Cattle, head.....	9,717	13
Cranberries, bbls....	....	13
Deer skins, bndls....	320	477
Eggs, bbls.....	206	354
Elm bark, bndls.....	....	28
Flour, bbls.....	122,698	210,162
Flour, bags.....	....	1,460
Furs, pkgs.....	238	101
Grass-seed, bags.....	3,051	7,694
Grass-seed, bbls.....	....	177
Game, pkgs.....	154	130
Ginseng, bales.....	89	....
Grease, bbls.....	....	96
High-wines, casks....	2,812	2,528
Hemp, bales.....	462	201
Hams, &c., casks.....	2,330	624
" bbls.....	1,471	....
Hams, &c., No.....	....	1,159
Hides, dry.....	10,744	9,697
Hides, green.....	4,273	2,922
Hides and skins, bndls	....	263
Hops, bales.....	....	52
Hogs, live, No.....	19,133	....
Hogs, dressed.....	7,708	29,297
Hams, casks.....	....	8
Leather, rolls.....	306	65
Lard, bbls.....	6,009	3,752
Lard, tierces.....	....	199
Lead, pigs.....	....	1,066
Miscellaneous, pkgs..	....	7,510
Oats, bush.....	3,714	....
Oats, bags.....	304	380
Oil, bbls.....	....	71
Pork.....	20,134	14,962
Pork, tierces.....	....	580
Provisions, bbls.....	....	100
Potatoes, bags.....	2,274	1,184
Potatoes, bbls.....	....	106
Rye, bags.....	1,799	441
Rags, bales.....	....	140
Shorts, bags.....	12,855	4,495
Sheep pelts, bndls....	452	1,012
Tallow, bbls.....	456	1,205
Tobacco, pkgs.....	....	24
Wheat, bags.....	32,025	87,600
" bush.....	8,148	1,172
" bbls.....	198	....
Wool, bales.....	7,050	8,030

Michigan Central Railroad. The whole number of engines now in actual use on the road is 80. There were also placed on the track, in 1855, 11 new double passenger cars, 4 conductors' cars, and 159 double freight cars, besides 13 single freight cars, which were rebuilt. Since the 1st of January, 1856, there were placed on the track, 5 passenger cars, 38 freight, and 32 platform cars—making the total number of new cars added to the stock since the 1st of January, 1855, 262.

The Michigan Central has always been one of the very best managed and most successful railroads in the Western country, and has always done an immense business, of which the figures representing its earnings are abundant proof. The following table shows the amount of freight of all kinds received in Detroit by this line during the years 1854 and 1855:—

	1854.	1855.
Apples, bbls.	1,172	1,978
Ale and beer	86	63
Ashes, lbs.	276,329	212,852
Barley, bush.	35,738	18,200
Buckwheat flour, lbs.	....	33,391
Bran and shorts	3,184,353	2,830,661
Beans	2,860	81,981
Beef, bbls.	1,041,298	2,606,854
Butter, lbs	418,613	715,623
Brick & sandstone	6,050,000	9,030,210
Corn-meal	313,011	798,133
Cheese	3,169	6,072
Cranberries	21,697	6,126
Coal	....	2,000
Dried fruit	134,353	29,088
Flour, bbls	333,651	361,356
Furniture and luggage	292,201	338,131
Grass-seed, &c., lbs.	548,498	1,097,783
Garden roots	2,414,519	738,162
Hams and bacon	2,004,212	899,276
High-wines, casks	7,238	5,096
Hides, lbs.	967,822	608,238
Iron and nails	71,063	226,307
Leather	95,233	25,395
Lumber, ft.	1,079,452	849,543
Miscel. mdse., lbs.	5,336,959	7,643,084
Millstones	....	450
Oats, bush.	338,311	158,159
Agricul. products, lbs.	422,073	308,098
Pelts and skins	378,599	497,292
Pork, bbls.	28,883	19,522
Plaster, lbs.	93,088	....
Stoves	2,760	5,354
Shingles, M.	....	34
Wool, lbs.	1,347,397	2,061,101
Wheat, bush.	644,949	346,534
Whisky, bbls.	1,011	1,516
Cattle, head	9,917	16,268
Horses, No.	177	107
Sheep	1,663	4,520
Hogs	19,133	121,946

Table showing the amount of freight of all kinds shipped Westwardly from Detroit over the Michigan Central Railroad during the years 1854 and 1855 :—

	1854.	1855.
Apples, bbls.	8,059	21,201
Ale and beer	2,286	1,860
Barley, bush.	86	47
B'kwheat flour, bbls.	300	5,545
Bran, &c., lbs.	530	400
Beans	64	30,450
Butter	711	12,824
Beef	1,400	150
Brick & sandstone	110,168	272,555
Corn, bush.	313	.....
Corn-meal, lbs.	365	.....
Cheese	410,793	853,762
Coal	4,301,913	4,557,189
Dried fruit	288,444	947,070
Flour, bbls.	.....	487
Furniture, &c., lbs.	3,186,761	5,154,751
Grass-seed, &c.	5,240	12,885
Garden roots	3,263	206,985
Hams and bacon	620	4,603
Hides	4,525	12,795
High-wines, casks	133	58
Iron and nails, lbs	10,820,953	9,841,353
Lime	1,234,491	1,376,411
Leather, lbs	668,005	769,686
Lumber, ft.	2,818,305	3,590,552
Lath, lbs.	1,576,227	1,594,726
Millstones	34,450	55,600
Miscel. mdse.	59,607,239	77,275,847
Oats, bush.	726	.....
Agricl. prod'cts, lbs.	55,898	109,283
Pork, bbls.	310	92
Pelts, &c., lbs.	15,350	85,229
Plaster	4,452,312	5,210,739
Pig-iron	865,083	267,515
Pork, in hog	3,822	546
Salt, bbls.	27,283	22,394
Stoves, lbs.	1,328,678	2,183,530
Shingles, M.	1,061	2,798
Wheat, bush.	29	518
Wool, lbs	9,010	1,181
Whisky, bbls.	4,282	2,453
Cattle, head	256	186
Horses, No.	1,031	1,043
Sheep	3,804	3,993
Hogs	24	6

The subjoined shows the earnings of the Michigan Central Railroad for the past three years :—

	Passengers.	Freight.	Total.
1853	$710,744 18	$584,702 07	$1,295,445 25
1854	1,154,038 11	789,786 02	1,943,824 13
1855	1,461,414 30	1,188,821 07	2,650,235 37

The increase in the total earnings in 1854 was $648,378 88 ; in 1855 it was $706,411 24.

The following shows the number of passengers carried over the Michigan Central Railroad for the past three years :—

1853..... 304,867 | 1854..... 451,689 | 1855..... 545,335

This shows an increase of 145,821½ passengers in 1854 over 1853, and an increase in 1855 over 1854, of 93,646.

GREAT WESTERN RAILROAD. In 1854 the total earnings of the road amounted to $1,231,546 27; in 1855 the road earned $2,260,493 27½—showing an increase in 1855 of $1,028,949 00½, or a fraction over 83 per cent. The following shows the earnings of this road for the years 1854 and 1855:—

	Passengers.	Freight.	Total.
1854	$961,499 50	$270,046 76	$1,231,546 27
1855	1,505,576 07	754,917 19	2,260,493 27

The following shows the number of passengers carried on this road during the past two years:—

1854..... 432,009 | 1855 ..... 649,964 | Increase 217,955

The subjoined shows the number of tons of freight carried during the years 1854 and 1855:—

1854..... 69,672 | 1855..... 174,563 | Increase..... 104,891

DETROIT AND MILWAUKIE RAILWAY. The Detroit and Milwaukie Railway, since the formation of the company by the consolidation of the Detroit and Pontiac and the Oakland and Ottawa companies, in April last, has been fast progressing towards completion; 32 miles of new track have been laid, and trains are now running to Linden, a distance of 57 miles from Detroit. A large portion of the remainder of the road is already graded and in readiness for the iron rail. The destination of the road is Grand Haven, Lake Michigan, a distance of 185 miles from Detroit, connecting at Grand Haven with a line of steamers to Milwaukie, directly across Lake Michigan. The road will pass through a section of country abounding in lumber, plaster, water-lime, coal, salt springs, and other valuable elements of wealth, as well as some of the very best farm lands in the State. The road has added materially to its rolling stock during the year, having placed upon the track 4 new and splendid passenger cars, 2 baggage cars, 35 freight cars, and 13 platform cars, all of which were built in this city by the Detroit Car Company, and for neatness, strength, durability, and convenience, are fully equal to any built in the West. The company have a large number of cars, both passenger and freight, now under way and partially completed, for this road.

The subjoined table shows the earnings of this road, from all sources, in each month of the last three years. In October, 1855, trains commenced running to Fentonville, a distance of 25 miles beyond its former termination. The increase in earnings in 1854 was equal to 14 per cent, and in 1855 it was equal to 37½ per cent:—

	1853.	1854.	1855.
January	$2,559 59	$3,054 87	$3,900 40
February	2,592 41	3,116 86	3,340 69
March	2,966 73	4,259 64	4,573 35
April	4,558 57	5,633 08	5,733 87
May	4,409 06	7,117 84	8,896 78
June	5,407 97	6,818 16	7,826 81
July	4,516 41	5,860 90	7,185 83
August	9,550 98	7,243 85	7,287 97
September	11,027 58	9,418 36	8,898 87
October	10,476 16	11,314 71	17,857 74
November	6,770 10	9,347 77	19,061 82
December	4,029 58	5,158 23	13,095 04
Total	$68,865 14	$78,342 27	$107,622 17

CUSTOM-HOUSE STATISTICS. The increase of free goods imported in 1855 over 1854 was $287,489; increase in dutiable goods, $330,164 66—total increase in

imports, $517,653 66. The increase of duties in 1855 was $104,831 40. The increase in the value of exports is $700,618 50.

	1854.	1855.
Value of free goods imported	$88,103 00	$375,592 00
Value of dutiable goods imported	58,477 52	388,642 18
Total value of imports	$146,580 52	$764,234 18
Amount of duties collected	11,777 60	116,609 00
Value of exports of domestic produce	197,814 00	871,451 50
Value of foreign goods exported	56,135 00	93,116 00
Total value of exports	$253,949 00	$954,567 50

In 1854 the number of vessels employed in the coasting trade was 2,290, with a total tonnage of 1,006,880. In 1855 the number of arrivals of vessels in the same trade was 2,114, with a total tonnage of 998,078. The number of foreign vessels arrived in 1854 was 123, with a tonnage of 36,810; in 1855 the number of arrivals of foreign vessels was 112, with a tonnage of 28,665. The number of American vessels arrived from foreign ports in 1854 was 21, with a tonnage of 4,804; in 1855 the number of American vessels arrived from foreign ports was 62, with a tonnage of 6,058. The total number of vessels arrived in 1854 was 2,434, against 2,288 in 1855; the total tonnage of vessels arrived in 1854 was 1,048,494, against 1,032,803 in 1855. The number of departures of American vessels employed in the coasting trade in 1854 was 2,384, with a tonnage of 1,200,892; in 1855 the number of departures was 2,169, with a tonnage of 991,658. The number of departures of foreign vessels in 1854 was 146, with a tonnage of 37,786; in 1855 the number of departures of foreign vessels was 145, with a tonnage of 24,848. The number of departures of American vessels for foreign ports in 1854 was 24, with a tonnage of 5,459; in 1855 the number of departures of American vessels for foreign ports was 68, with a total tonnage of 8,636. The total number of departures from Detroit in 1854 was 1,554, against 2,382 in 1855; the total tonnage of vessels cleared in 1854 was 1,244,137, against 1,025,142 in 1855.

TONNAGE OF THE PORT OF DETROIT.

	Number.	Tons. 95ths.
Steamboats	55	27,123 62
Propellers	25	4,879 81
Barks	3	1,007 94
Brigs	8	1,831 94
Schooners	128	13,427 25
Scow-schooners	17	767 15
Scows	17	882 58
Sloops	46	946 59
Total	299	50,867 13
Total in 1854	263	44,022 76
Increase	36	6,844 32

The natural commercial facilities of Detroit are of the very best kind. Being situated on one of the most beautiful rivers in the United States, wide, deep, and clear, a most excellent harbor is afforded. Wharves extend along the river nearly three miles, in one unbroken chain, and are constantly being extended farther. One new warehouse was erected during the year, that of G. O. Williams & Co., which is of brick, large and commodious and fire proof. A large number of tug-boats are owned here, which are used in towing vessels through the river during a calm, towing and otherwise assisting disabled vessels, lighting vessels over the St. Clair flats, &c. &c.

Detroit offers great inducements to country merchants, being well supplied with mercantile houses of all descriptions, both wholesale and retail, and some of them conducted upon a very large scale. One of these establishments, the largest in the city, has a free-stone front, is four stories high, with a basement, occupies a front of 50 feet, and extending in depth 100 feet, comprising 10 rooms, each 25 feet in width, and 100 feet in depth, giving an area of 25,000 square feet, all of which are filled to their utmost capacity with foreign and domestic dry goods, carpets, cloths, clothing, millinery, &c., in addition to which the firm occupy a building in the rear for storing purposes. The retail rooms are four in number, and are finished in the most gorgeous style. From 60 to 75 salesmen, and from 100 to 150 persons are employed altogether in the several departments. The whole establishment is conducted upon a scale of magnificence entirely unknown elsewhere in the West. The sales of this firm for the year reach upwards of $700,000. There are a number of houses devoted exclusively to the wholesale dry goods business, whose sales reach $400,000 per year and upwards. There are a number of large wholesale grocery establishments, some of them occupying the same amount of room as the dry goods store above described. The sales of one of the largest firms during the year 1855 were, in round numbers, $500,000. The total wholesale grocery business of the city in 1855 may be safely estimated at $2,500,000. As another evidence of the fast increasing business of the city, and its permanent and healthy growth in a commercial point of view, we might here state that in 1850, five years since, the entire wholesale grocery trade did not exceed $500,000. In that year the sales of the largest firm then in the city amounted to only $80,000. The mercantile business of the city, in every department, has fully kept pace with the grocery trade, and all branches are carried on upon so safe and permanent a basis that failures are almost an unknown thing.

Detroit is also a manufacturing as well as a commercial city. There are within the city limits 46 stationary steam-engines, employed in manufacturing establishments of various kinds, among which are ten iron machine shops, two locomotive manufactories, several brass founderies, sash, door and blind factories, tobacco and morocco factories, tanneries, sawmills, plaster-mills, flouring-mills, &c. There are in this city 343 mechanic shops of various kinds. Among the most important manufactures in the city is that of iron and machinery, which is now carried on most extensively. The Detroit Locomotive Works occupy an entire square of ground, and have invested a capital of $250,000. The number of men employed during the past year was 300. The quantity of the chief articles used were: 1,000 tons pig iron, 1,800 tons coal, 1,000 cords wood, 400 tons bar iron, 35 tons copper tubes, 30 tons brass castings. During the year they built 14 new first class locomotives, and rebuilt 2 old ones, built 3 propeller engines, and 17 stationary engines and boilers for the same. They are now building locomotives for the Michigan Central and the New York Central Railroads, and have under way several propeller engines. There are 8 or 10 machinery and boiler shops, employing from 50 to 150 men each, and some of them using annually 2,000 tons cast iron, 300 tons wrought iron, 30 tons copper, from 500 to 600 tons coal, 50 to 100 cords wood, and having a capital invested of from $50,000 to $80,000. The manufactures of some of the largest of these establishments

for the year 1855, reach upwards of $200,000. About six months since a company commenced operations under the name of the Detroit Car Company, for the manufacture of railway cars. Since that time they have completed four large passenger cars, two baggage cars, and forty-eight freight cars, all of which will compare favorably in workmanship with that of any other company, East or West. These cars were all built for the Detroit and Milwaukie Railway, and the company have a heavy contract for furnishing rolling stock for this road. From 70 to 80 men are regularly employed in the various shops.

A company of capitalists of Detroit have also established at Wyandotte, 11 miles below, on the Detroit River, a heavy iron manufactory and rolling mill, which is supplied with iron by the Eureka Iron Mining Company. The company have invested at Wyandotte $150,000 in the purchase of real estate and the erection of a rolling mill and blast furnace—$44,000 in the former—$50,000 in the rolling mill, the machinery for which was purchased at two-thirds its real value, and between $50,000 and $60,000 in the furnace and ore beds. The rolling mill company have already commenced the erection of another rolling mill for re-rolling railroad iron. In this mill, which will be completed the present season, they will invest, at the outset, $50,000 more, with a capacity for rolling 6,000 tons, and which can be easily enlarged. The mill will manufacture, or will possess a capacity for manufacturing, 3,000 tons of iron yearly, worth at least $240,000, employing about 75 men, to whom about $35,000 will be annually paid out. The mill, already completed, has been in operation since November, and has manufactured about 250 tons of square, flat, oval, and round bar iron, of a very superior quality, and which readily commands $90 per ton. Thus far it has used only scrap iron and iron from the Collins' Company, but hereafter it will be supplied principally from the new blast furnace with Lake Superior iron. The Lake Superior iron is found to be of such a superior quality that orders are flowing in upon the Wyandotte works from all directions, and they have now more orders for iron than they can possibly fill.

Art. IV.—MARINE MEMORANDA OF LIGHTNING.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, etc:*—

I have made up a schedule of sail and steam vessels and steamboats struck by lightning during a period of three years and seven months, within the field of our research, with a view to call the attention of the commercial men of our country to the importance of protecting the officers, passengers and crews, and of the vessels and cargoes, against lightning by means of metallic conductors. That well known philanthropist, R. B. FORBES, of Boston, whose experience both as a shipmaster and a merchant has made him at home on the subject, has devoted much time and expended much money in endeavoring to induce ship owners and masters of vessels to secure their vessels against lightning, and still continues his noble efforts, and we trust will be successful in the accomplishment of the philanthropic undertaking. We now proceed with the statement of 244

several cases of lightning, and follow with some remarks suggested by the facts here narrated, and close with some particular statements in reference to the phenomena of lightning and its testimony in reference to the protection which metals afford against lightning:—

February 22d, 1853. Clipper ship Golden Light, in latitude 22° 23′ N.' longitude 47° 45′ W., and set on fire. All hands were driven to the boats, numbering, with the passengers, 35 persons. The ship was burned to the water's edge. The boats, five in number, were abundantly supplied with provisions and water. One of the boats was missing on the morning of the 24th, and another parted company on the fourth night after leaving the ship. After five days exposure the remaining three boats were picked up by the British ship Shand, Capt. Christie, from Calcutta, and arrived at Boston on the 20th of March. One of the missing boats arrived at the Island of Antigua in safety; the other boat, with 8 persons on board, has not been heard from. Vessel and cargo valued at $300,000.

March 3d. Ship Reindeer, in latitude 36° 20′ N., longitude 71° W.; knocked the whole watch down, and covered the deck with fire.

4th. Bark Orline, St. Johns, off Cape Hatteras; which split head of mainmast and stunned the mate. Ship Massachusetts, in lat. 36° 10′ N., lon. 73° 30′ W.; was struck twice in one hour, splitting the cap of mainmast, passing down the mast and the topsail sheets, ripping up the pump coats, and entering below deck. Brig Fornax (of Warren, R. I.); at sea, and damaged.

April 9th. British ship Alciope, in latitude 11° N., longitude 88° W.; set on fire, and, with cargo, totally consumed. The Alciope was bound from India to England, and her cargo supposed to have been valuable.

23d. Schooner Eugenia, in Hampton Roads, and damaged. Ship Holyoke, at sea; all her spars, except lower masts, destroyed. Brig O'Brien, at sea; one man injured so that he died. Ship Syren, of Salem, off Cape Horn; two mates knocked down insensible.

May 5th. A meteor, apparently the size of a man's head, burst at the mast-head of ship Houqua, at sea, throwing out most brilliant sparks, came down the mast, and passed to leeward; two men standing near the mast were visibly affected.

10th. A fishing sloop, lying in the Delaware; and sunk. Two men asleep on board of her had a narrow escape for their lives; they were badly burned, one, it is feared, will lose his eye-sight.

19th. Schooner Adeline Howes, while at anchor in Dennis Harbor; and lost foremast. Schooner Champion, while at anchor in Provincetown Harbor; and lost foremast.

27th. Propeller Northern Michigan, coming out of the St. Lawrence; which blackened and shivered her mast, taking out large strips like fence rails, riddling her sail, and passing into the pilot-house, smashed all the glass, and partially stunning two men there, passed off by the bell-wire.

June 10th. Ship Josiah Bradlee, of Boston, at New Orleans; the fluid entered the fore-hatch, setting on fire a bale of cotton. Ship Raritan, of Kingston, Me., at New Orleans; had her sky-sail and main-top-gallant-mast shattered, splinters of which were driven nearly two inches into her decks. Ship Desdemonia, at New Orleans; considerably splintering royal mast and main-top-gallant mast.

13th. Ship Prince of the Seas; which split main-royal mast, royal yard, and destroyed her signals.

16th. British bark Eliza Barss, in latitude 24° 10′ N., longitude 82° 30′ W.; the fluid came down the main-mast and split six puncheons of molasses on deck.

30th. Ship Audubon, at anchor off the Battery, New York; and received some slight damage to her upper spars. Two of the seamen were affected by the shock. Steamship State of Georgia, off the Capes of Delaware; shivering her top and main mast, whence the fluid passed through the deck into the cabin, and then through the engine-room. No one was hurt.

July 3rd. British schooner Freedom, 10 miles N. W. of Block Island; which

shivered fore-top-gallant-mast and halliard block, and doing other damage; the fluid then passed off by the chain on deck, and went out over the stern, giving the man at the wheel a severe shock. Schooner Blooming Youth, of Baltimore; while loading at Matagorda; shivering her fore-top-mast, badly splintering fore-mast, injuring Capt. Lewis and one man; the fluid passed out of the hawspipe, by the chain.

4th. Schooner Naiad, in Chesapeake Bay; and lost main-mast, &c.

8th. Ship Gem of the Sea, at sea, during a hailstorm; which shivered the rod to atoms, and melted it in several places; several of the passengers were benumbed with the shock, and one was transfixed in his chair for some moments.

18th. Brig Isaac Carver, at sea; shivering main-mast and killing Isaac Eldred, a seaman, aged 20 years.

19th. Bark Zilpah P. Brown, 90 miles from Montauk; and damaged. Steamer Northern Light, 113 miles S. of Cape Antonia; and had main-mast split.

21st. Schooner Cicero, in the eastern edge of the Gulf; and damaged.

22nd. Schooner H. P. Russell, in latitude 32° 42′, off Cape Look Out; injuring main-top-mast, mainmast, and cutting mainsail.

23rd. Ship Galena, loaded with cotton; off Abaco, and set on fire. The Charleston *Standard* of July 27th gives the following account of the burning of the ship Galena:—"The ship Galena, of New York, 11 days from New Orleans, for Havre, with about 2,100 bales of cotton on board, was struck by lightning near the mizzen-mast, on the 23rd inst., near Abaco, one of the Bahama Islands. The ship was soon after found to be on fire, and the Danish brig Margarethe, just then in sight, was spoken, and the passengers, some 40 in number, and some specie, placed on board of her. Both vessels immediately bore away for this port, and arrived here yesterday morning, and it is feared that she is badly on fire. Every exertion made to extinguish it. The above has been handed us by our ship-news reporter, since which we have been enabled to gather a few additional particulars. The ship has been taken to Smith's wharf, where the several fire companies of our city immediately commenced throwing water into her hold, and at five o'clock had filled her up to the depth of seven feet and a half. The extent of damage cannot at present be ascertained. The heat was still great. The fluid passed down the mizzen-mast to the upper deck, which is slightly torn; the only other abrasion perceptible is in the moulding of the cabin, at the stern of the vessel. The heat is greatest about the mizzen-mast, and it is probable, therefore, that it was there the fire commenced. Two of the lady passengers were stunned, but no one sustained permanent injuries. There were no lightning conductors attached to the ship, and it is to this absence, doubtless, that the casualty is attributable. The ship is of 800 tons burden, and insured in the city of New York." Schooner Forest, off St. Mark's; the fluid came down by the fore-top-mast, killing Jos. Barritt, a seaman, instantly. Ship Austria, from Charleston, S. C., for Liverpool. The following extract from a letter from Capt. Tessier, of the ship Austria, to her owners at Charleston, S. C., describes an effect of electricity:—

LIVERPOOL, September 2, 1853.

"My chronometer stopped, as I informed you in my last, on the fourth day out of Charleston. The cause of it has been ascertained beyond the possibility of doubt. On its being taken to pieces the balance spring was found heavily charged with electricity, and actually bent, and all the other works composed of steel more or less injured. At the time it stopped a heavy storm of thunder and lightning was passing over the ship; the surrounding atmosphere was in such a state of commotion that the Austria fairly trembled in her every timber, and we distinctly heard the lightning hiss as it struck the water in rather uncomfortable proximity to our sides. All our compasses were also slightly injured, and had to be sent on shore for correction on the arrival of the ship in Liverpool."

August 7th. Ship Hahnemann, of Norfolk, at City Point; shattering her main-mast from the top down to the main deck.

8th. Ship Nathaniel Thompson; at sea, and received much damage.

14th. Fishing schooner R. R. Freeman, of Wellfleet, off Portland; which stunned a seaman, shivered fore-mast, and did other damage. Fishing schooner

Reindeer, of Newburyport; when near Kennebunk, and had main-mast ruined. Schooner Mary Ann, from Philadelphia, for Danvers; which shivered main-mast and main-top-mast.

17th. Schooner E. S. Powell; off Squam, and had her cargo set on fire, fore-mast shivered, decks torn up, &c.; the fluid killed Wm. Kelley, a seaman, and broke the wrist of Wm. Brown.

26th. Ship Winnegance, in latitude 30° N., longitude 5° W.; which shivered the fore-top-mast and fore-top-gallant-mast.

September 14th. Brig Chatsworth, in latitude 29°, longitude 26°; which carried away the main-topmast and gaff topsail, split blocks about the mainmast head, and took the end of fore-spencer gaff off, and done some damage to fore-mast.

15th. Steamer Fashion, on Lake Michigan, between Racine and Milwaukie; one passenger was struck by the fluid, and had his clothes set on fire. Schooner Sarah; at Aransas, Texas, and had mainmast entirely destroyed.

22d. Spanish brigantine Nervion; near Neuvitas, Cuba, and very much shattered; one man was killed, and several were knocked down and stunned.

October 13th. Bark Fanny, in latitude 28° 20′ N., longitude 79° 50′ W.; which shattered the main-royal-mast and head of mainmast.

14th. Bark Minnesota, in lat, 8° 20′ N. lon. 48° 40′; which shivered sky-sail and royal masts, passed through royal yard and sails, tore heel of top-gallant mast to pieces, without harming topmast or other yards, shivered foremast, taking out one piece four inches deep from the cap to the rigging, without disturbing the cap or any part of the top; took the larboard fore-topsail sheet, and fell to the deck with an explosion equal to that of a heavy bomb-shell, and sending up a shower of sparks into the air like a fiery furnace, tearing the topsail sheet block to atoms, and reduced the sail to shreds. On opening the fore-scuttle, found the fore-hold filled with smoke, which proceeded from the chain-locker, and which was stopped by a few buckets of water. Two men who were sitting within two feet of the place of explosion, were slightly hurt, one having his side scorched from shoulder to hip, without harming his clothes, and had his face cut by fragments of the top-sail sheet, but both were well and on duty in 24 hours; neither could give any account of his sensations at the time of being struck.

23d. Ship Ohio, in latitude 49° N., longitude 41° W.; was twice struck, which injured several of the passengers and crew; splitting the main-topmast and injuring the mainmast head. Whale bark Gypsey, at sea; which injured the main mast badly.

November 25th. Ship Elizabeth, in lat. 41° 43′, lon. 53° 10′; which broke off end of jibboom, and split the martingale to pieces. Ship Sea Witch, off the Cape; shivering fore-royal and topgallant mast, and breaking much iron work.

December 23d. British bark Worthy, at sea; which set the foremast on fire; the foreyard was filled with men at the time, but none of them were injured.

January 15th, 1854. Schooner J. B. Brown, at sea, from San Francisco, for Oregon; which carried away main and fore-topmast yards, sails, and all attached; the man at the wheel was struck by the main-boom, and injured.

20th. Ship Scargo, in latitude 20° N., longitude ——; which split fore-royal mast, and in descending did other damage. It entered the hold through the fore-mast combings, and came out abaft the fore rigging, bursting up four deck planks and started the oakum out of the seams in several other places.

23d. Ship Parliament, at sea, from Liverpool, for Boston; which killed two seamen, Henry Cline, of Massachusetts, and James Burgess, of Ireland, and injuring another seriously.

26th. Ship Wild Rover, in latitude 45° N., longitude 40° W.; was twice struck, and set on fire forward. By several hours exertion in pumping in water the fire was suppressed; 35 bales of cotton were thrown overboard. The fore-mast was first struck, and afterwards the main.

February 19th. Ship Vespasian, at sea, on the passage from River Gaboon to North Coast, Africa, which carried away main-topgallant mast, and did other damage.

March 18th. Ship Charles Chaloner, in latitude 39° N., longitude 56° W.; which damaged foremast, fore-topgallant mast, and royal mast.

23d. Ship William Tapscott, in latitude 37° 50′ N., longitude 65° W.; was struck three times, but received no damage.

24th. Ship Universe, in latitude 46° 28′ N., longitude 37° W.; which melted the copper at the masthead, and the lightning conductor (which was not rigged out, but rolled up at the lower part of the shrouds,) along its whole length, it then passed along the rail, ripping up the copper on its track; took a piece out of the deck, which was carried through the ventilator; all the watch on deck at the time were thrown down with violence; both topgallant sheets were burned off, and five large holes made in the mainsail, and filling the ship with a dense smoke, which rendered everything for a few moments invisible.

April 8th. Ship Morning Star; on the edge of Gulf stream; which set main-masthead on fire.

14th. Schooner Nebraska, when 54 miles W. S. W. of Ship Island; the fluid struck the mainmast, and descended to the deck, when the current divided, and traversed the whole length of the deck, to either end of the vessel. The schooner was completely enveloped in flames in a few moments, and the crew had barely time to escape with a few biscuits, a jug of water, and the ships chronometer. They were picked up by schooner Martha Jane. The Nebraska was loaded with cotton and molasses, and was totally destroyed. Ship or bark Gem of the Sea; near the mouth of the Mississippi, which started the canvas around the mainmast and hurt three men, but not seriously. The shock was severely felt by all on board. Brig Nenuphur, in latitude 25° 30′ N., longitude 91° 24′ W.; which shivered the main-royal mast and yard, and main-topgallant mast, scorching the topgallant sails, parted chain-runner and topsail sheets, trussel-tree on lower main masthead, ripped up the partners of the mainmast, splitting corners of main hatch, and made its escape out of the vessel's hold at the water's edge, starting out a bolt on each side, and some trunnels, breaking copper, &c. Schooner A. W. Denslow, a lighter in the Galveston Bay trade, at the mouth of Trinity River; and set on fire. She had on board 301 bales cotton, of which about 200 were thrown overboard and got on shore. The vessel was then scuttled and sunk in shallow water, coming even with her deck.

26th. Steamer Ben Franklin, at St. Louis; not particularly damaged.

27th. Sloop Oregon, on North River, opposite Fishkill; and damaged to the amount of $500. New ship Canvass Back, on the stocks at Baltimore; shattering the mast and other portions of the vessel. Several caulkers who went under her for shelter were stunned, and one man was killed. Ship Lebanon, at Baltimore; and slightly damaged.

28th. Brig Detroit, in latitude 38° 25′ N., longitude 70° 20′ W.; which shivered the fore-royalmast to pieces, split fore-topsail, and fore-topgallant-yard, and head of foremast, and severely stunned one man. Schooner B. F. Sparks, at sea; lost foremast.

May 5th. Ship Fortitude, off Sable Island; two passengers seriously injured.

25th. Schooner Charles and Edward, while loading, 16 miles below New Orleans, which shivered the foremast to pieces; the fluid passing through the heart of the mast into the hold, and out near the fore-chains, taking off a butt and bend streak, and doing other considerable damage. Four of the crew were injured, but not seriously.

June 1st. Brig America, at Darien; had mainmast badly injured.

6th. Schooner Express, at Bangor; which split the foremast from the top to within three or four feet of the deck, at which point the charge dispersed. The mate was thrown several feet by the concussion against the galley, and rendered senseless for a short time.

7th. Schooner Wave, in latitude 27° N., longitude 76° W.; which carried away the main-topmast, split mainmast and mainsail, and did other damage.

13th. Ship Southport, while loading with cotton, at Savannah; which passed down the mainmast, made three small indentures in the deck, and went down the margin of the pump into the hold, setting a few bales of cotton on fire, which

were soon extinguished. The mate was standing near the mainmast; the shock taking his legs from under him, he fell to the deck insensible, his head striking first. He recovered soon after. The damage to the vessel was trifling.

27th. Schooner Kedron, off the Highlands; the fluid passed down the mainmast, injuring it so much as to require a new one, and passing off by the centre-board rod. Captain H. and the mate were knocked down.

28th. A fishing smack, near Petty's Island, Philadelphia, in which two men were fishing. The fluid passed through the bow, killing the two men.

July 8th. Brig America, off Frying Pan Shoals, (being the second time in six weeks;) which split head of foremast, fore-topgallant-mast, and fore-topgallant-yard.

18th. Ship Vandalia, on the edge of the Gulf Stream; which shattered the fore-topmast, split several blocks, and parted topgallant-sheets.

20th. Schooner Cataract, in latitude 32° 35′ N., longitude 77° 57′ W., and set the vessel on fire in the lower hold; took off the fore-hatch and broke out the cargo, when they found two barrels of tar on fire, and a number of barrels of spirits of turpentine within six inches of the flames.

27th. Bark Clement, at Charleston, S. C.; which shivered mainmast.

28th. Brig ———, at the Railroad Company's dock, Aspinwall; the fluid struck the anchor chain, and passed off on it into the water.

31st. Ship Radiant, (of Boston,) at sea, from New York to San Francisco; which damaged the fore-royal-mast and top-gallant-mast, burned the top-gallant-sail and descended to the deck, taking out pieces of wood about the masts. The hatches were opened, but no fire was found in the hold. Ship India, at Laguna; which shivered the main-royal-mast, and damaged the other spars and the deck. Ship Reporter, in the Gulf stream; which split the fore-sky-sail and royal-mast, raised the combings of the fore-hatch and bed of foremast, split several planks in the deck, knocked down three men forward, and paralyzed for a short time several men aft. Schooner Foam, at Toronto, laden with railroad iron; which shivered main-topmast to atoms, passed down through her pump, which it demolished, and taking a sudden turn shot out through her bows, doing no serious damage. A man at work at the time stood quite close to the mast, and did not even feel the effects of the shock. Brig B. Strout, at Cardenas; which injured her light spars and rigging.

August 1st. Brig Standard, in Buffalo Bay; which considerably damaged her, and caused her to lose her anchors.

2d. Schooner Abd-el-Kader, at sea, from New York for Alexandria; which shivered mainmast.

3d. Schooner Heyward, off Georgetown, S. C.; which damaged mainmast and main-topmast.

4th. Schooner Moses G. Leonard, in James River; which carried away main-topmast, and injured the mainmast so that it will require a new one. Brig W. H. Parks, at Nassau Mills, Fla.; which damaged her mainmast and rigging. One seaman was severely stunned.

12th. Bark City of Ogdensburg, at Chicago; which shivered her three masts badly, and tore up a portion of the deck.

13th. Pilot boat New York, off Sandy Hook; which split the mainmast from the head down to the kelson, ripping up the deck, &c. Schooner Emma Hotchkiss, off Barnegat; which shivered the fore-topmast to pieces, and passed down the foremast, knocking down the captain and three of the crew, who escaped without injury.

14th. Schooner Alcyone, at Wilmington, N. C.; had both masts shivered. A portion of the crew, under an awning amidships, were more or less shocked, but were otherwise not injured.

25th. British brig Minerva, off Sandy Hook; which carried off fore and main-topsails close to the cap. Her spars, sails, and rigging were considerably twisted and much damaged.

27th. Brig Tybee, 20 miles north of Hatteras; which carried away main-topmast, head of mainmast, &c.

29th. Brig Caroline E. Kelley, off Hatteras; which split sails, fore-topgallant-mast, &c.

September 1st. U. S. ship Portsmouth, in latitude 16° 37′ N., longitude 122° 52′ W., at 7 P. M. The lightning struck the main conductor, and followed it down without doing any injury to the ship. Three men in the foretop were prostrated by the shock, but not injured. It was frightful for a few seconds to see the freaks of the lightning as it passed down the conductor. When it struck the ship the report of the explosion was awful, shaking the ship and scattering the sparks in every direction.

7th. Schooner Juliet, about 30 miles southeast of Fire Island; which carried away fore-topmast, destroyed gaff-topsail, and so badly shattered the foremast that it will require a new one. The fluid passed out forward, doing considerable damage to the bands.

11th. Schooner North Carolina, off the capes of Delaware; which carried away fore-topgallant-mast, topmast-rigging, head-stays, and burnt the topsail.

13th. Fishing schooner Hannah Fitts, at anchor off Black Rocks; which shivered the foremast, and in its descent tore off a portion of the companion-way, &c.

19th. Schooner Forward, at Punta Arenas; which shivered the main-topmast. The lightning escaped on the chains. Two men on deck at the time were knocked down, and but slightly injured.

30th. Clipper ship Flying Scud, in Gulf stream, was twice struck. The first flash struck the ship forward, knocking down several of the men. One man was brought into the cabin incapable of standing from the shock, from which, however, he recovered in a short time. All felt their legs go from under them, and their nerves were greatly influenced by the electricity. The second flash struck the ship between the main and mizzen masts; this also knocked down most of the hands on deck, and, curious to observe, it had a great effect upon the compasses. When first observed, the needle revolved with great velocity, and this continued for some time; when it ceased the compasses were found to be considerably changed, and it was afterwards discovered that they varied five points to eastward of their true bearing, which, after a lapse of five or six days diminished to three points. These facts were clearly proved by the position of the sun and the bearing of the North star. In consequence of this derangement of the compasses (five in number,) it was necessary to lay the ship to under close-reefed topsails for eighteen hours, although the wind was perfectly fair, and the ship might have run 130 miles at least. It would appear that the lightning struck the mizzenmast and descended by the lightning-rod to the channels. The wind appeared to blow the copper wire of the rod against the chains, and hence it was conducted through the bolt into the interior of the ship, where it magnetized a large quantity of iron and steel instruments which were in the after-hold. To prove that these were the seat of attraction, Captain Bearse placed a compass in all parts of the ship. The influence varied in different places. On the topgallant-forecastle the compass seemed to return to its proper bearing; abaft the mainmast the influence was much stronger, and in the afterpart of the ship it was most potent. Placed upon the cabin floor, the compass still revolved with considerable velocity. On a board placed ten feet out upon the larboard side of the ship, the compass was found to become nearly correct. By this means the true course of the ship was found. The influence above mentioned prevailed during most of the passage, until the 7th of December, in latitude 43° 45′ S., longitude 110° 15′ E., where the compass seemed to become more correct, being found to vary but three-fourths of a point to the eastward.

Br. bark, Olympus, at Belize, Honduras. It seems to have struck her mainmast, shivering the royal topmast and yards down to the mainmast; then down to the pump; down that and through her bottom, causing her to leak so badly that her cargo (she was fully loaded) had to be discharged, and she repaired, before she could proceed on her voyage.

October 16th. Schooner Spring Hill, in latitude 35° N., longitude 72° W.; which split foresail, and injured two men.

27th. Brig Francis Faber, in the Gulf stream; which shivered the main-topgallant and royal-masts, and a ball of fire passed through the cabin with a tremendous report, filling it with smoke, but did no damage. Captain Jackson, who was sitting in the cabin at the time, was considerably stunned.

December 3d. Brig Brothers, at sea, Cape Henry bearing W. N. W. 20 miles; which passed down the mainmast, carrying away topsail-sheets, splitting topsail, knocking down the captain, first and second mate, and one man,—entered the larboard pump, and bursted it three feet below the deck, and shattering the pumps' wells, choked them up, went round the hold and came up through the cabin, breaking doors, windows, and crockery. Whaleship Lancer, at sea, had been struck twice during the six weeks previous to December 20, losing main-topgallant-mast the last time; had main-hatch combings splintered, and several men knocked down.

January 23d, 1855. Schooner Arno, at sea, from Rappahannock for Bath; struck on foremast.

26th. Schooner Stephen Hotchkiss, in Gulf stream; which instantly killed a seaman named Charles Smith, injured the mate, and stunned all on board. Schooner E. H. Rowley, in latitude 35° 30′ N., longitude 74° W.; which shivered mainmast.

February 5th. Brig Forest State, in latitude 33° 10′ N., longitude 76° W.; which knocked down four men, and killed Antonio Barnard, of Boston, (seaman;) the others were not seriously injured. Schooner Clara Borges, at sea; which split the mainmast, injuring the man at the wheel, and some others of the crew.

6th. Ship Seaman, in latitude 36° N., longitude 63° W., and immediately took fire. With the greatest exertions they were enabled to keep the fire under until the next morning, when they fell in with the brig Marion, bound from Boston to Cienfuegos, which took them off. Soon after the ship was enveloped in flames—cargo and vessel a total loss—crew saved. She was 546 tons, four years old, and bound from New Orleans to Marseilles, with corn.

March 9th. Schooner Yankee Doodle, at sea, Chincoteaque light bearing N. N. W. 18 miles; on head of mainmast, setting fire to the mats on the gaff; and down through the top of the house into the larboard state-room, and out of the side of the house, setting fire to things in the state-room. Schooner Kingfisher, at sea; had foremast carried away. Schooner Jos. E. Smith, at sea; lost foremast.

April 19th. Bark Dickey Sam, at Buenaventura; which splintered the foremast several feet. She had on board, as cargo, 500 packages of powder. Ship Ceylon, at Buenaventura; shattering the mizzen-topgallant-mast, taking its course down the mast, and passing through the cabin, at which time the vessel appeared to be all on fire. During the time the rain fell in incessant torrents.

20th. Sloop David Lamphere, at anchor in Greenport harbor, L. I.; which shivered her mast from top to bottom. The crew, asleep below, escaped uninjured.

May 12th. Brig Charlotte, in latitude 37° 12′ N. longitude 62° W.; which stripped her of everything but lower masts. Schooner Arcturus, off Grand River, C. W.; damage $1,000.

30th. Bark Kilby, in latitude 32° N., longitude 70° W.; which split the main-royalmast to pieces, splintered the main-topgallant-mast, passed down the topsails, and scorched the mizzen-topmost-staysail, descended the main-topsail sheets, and ripped up the pumps, &c.

June 20th. Schooner Pennsylvania, off Cape May; which shattered mainmast.

22d. Bark Gov. Hubbard, off Barnegat; which shivered fore-topgallant-masthead, and started the wood ends above water.

24th. Brig Sarah Bernice, in latitude 28° 45′ N., longitude 70° 36′ W.; which splintered fore-topmast, fore-topgallant-mast, main-topmast, sails, &c. Schooner Magnolia, off Bar Point, Lake Erie; lost one man—damage $200.

July. Brig Ellen Parker, off Point Pellee, Lake Erie; damaging spars and hull to the amount of $1,000.

12th. Canal-boat Wyoming, at Utica; which killed one man, and stunned two others.

16th. Clipper schooner Clinton, at the dock at Montreal; shivering the topmast in pieces, and followed down the mainmast into the vessel's hold, and escaped out of the side just above light water-mark. Captain R. Taylor was in his state-room at the time, and rendered senseless by the shock, but recovered in a few hours. The mate was also much affected by the shock, and the crew, in another part of the vessel, all were more or less prostrated, but were not seriously injured. The vessel was covered with fragments of spars, and the rigging considerably damaged.

17th. The scow on Horicon Lake, Wis.; two men were instantly killed, and twelve more or less burnt and injured.

20th. Sloop Eliza Jane, on the ways at Greenpoint; one of her masts badly shivered. Schooner C. A. Heckscher, in Delaware Bay; her fore-topmast and foremast were badly shattered, together with fore-throat halyard-block and bulwarks. The mate, cook, and crew were all forward at the time, hauling down the main-jib, and were all so shocked that they appeared insane for a while. Bark Almeida, off Tortugas, and much injured. Her foremast was struck, and the topmast was broken off; the lower mast was uninjured.

26th. Schooner Belle, of Huntington, when opposite Coeymans, North River; on both masts. The lightning entered the mainmast, below the cross-trees, and passed down to within ten feet of the deck, then down the center rod and board to the trunk. From the cross-trees the mast is furrowed to a depth of four inches by two inches in width, tapering down to a small sliver to within twelve feet of the deck. The foremast is considerably injured and shivered. This mast was fired near the cross-trees, but it was soon extinguished by the rain. The captain and all hands were on deck at the time, but received no injury.

29th. Scoooner E. S. James, in the Gulf of Mexico; which shivered the foremast and topmast.

31st. Ship Osceola, while anchored off Old Point Comfort; her royal-mast shivered. The electric fluid passed down the mast, and off through the hawser hole. The captain and crew were on shore at the time. Pilot-boat York, in Hampton Roads; had one of her masts shivered, and everything in the cabin broken up. There were five persons on board at the time, all of whom were prostrated. One of them, a colored boy, was killed, and his body completely charred. Captain Clark was the first who recovered consciousness, and as soon as able threw water on the others, which had the effect to resuscitate them. The cabin was set on fire, but was soon extinguished. A schooner, in Hampton Roads; had foremast shivered. A boat, near Hampton Roads; a man killed while fishing. Schooner Elizabeth, at sea, near Port Leon; the mate instantly killed, and all hands stunned. The vessel was set on fire and consumed, with cargo. Attempts were made to scuttle the vessel, but without success, the inflammable nature of the cargo (cotton and naval stores) preventing many from approaching her at first, and very soon after it became impossible to get near her on account of the heat and smoke. Insured in Wall-street for $25,000. Schooner Colonel John McRae, North of Hatteras; was struck on the mizzen-mast, which ripped up the deck and passed into the hold, causing her to leak 500 strokes an hour. Schooner Isaac Carver, at Cardenas; which shivered her main-royal-mast-head, and topgallant and topsail yards. British ship Igenoria, at Belize, Honduras, while passing from one river to another in loading; which splintered royal-mast, and set the royal on fire; damage trifling, but the pilot was struck dead.

August 4th. Packet schooner Melrose, of and for Provincetown, while off Long Island Head; completely shivering mainmast and main-topmast. Captain Crocker, who was at the wheel, was knocked down and laid senseless for four hours. A coal-laden vessel, at Braintree, Mass.; which shivered masts and spars; a man in the hold was prostrated.

5th. The American ship Skylark and a Spanish bark, at Havana, Cuba; slightly damaged.

6th. Schooner J. H. Dicks, of New Haven, at Tampico, Mexico; carrying away mainmast, and injuring her so badly as to cause her to be condemned. She

has since arrived at Mobile. Schooner General Grant, at Bermuda, W. I.; had main topmast damaged.

13th. Brig Delmont Locke, off Brandywine Light; which split royal-mast, topgallant-mast, royal-yard, and shattered head of foremast, together with injuring the sails attached. The damage would have been more serious were it not for the heavy rain which fell at the time.

23d. Schooner S. S. Lewis, at anchor off the Battery, New York; which took the main-topmast clean off, bringing it down by the run. It then went down mainmast, shivering it completely, and rendering it entirely useless, it only being supported by the rigging. The fluid then passed into the lower hold and out of the fore hatch, near which one of the hands was sitting, but who, with the rest of the hands on board, escaped injury.

30th. A row boat, in passing from Poet's Island to Warwick shore, Bermuda; and a man killed.

September 1st. Schooner Augustus Handy, on Lake Huron, about forty miles from St. Clair River; which shivered both the fore and main mast to pieces. When the masts fell they carried with them the jibboom; damage, $1,000. She was towed into Port Huron. Brig N. M. Standart, in the St. Clair River; which shivered topgallant-mast.

4th. Bark Russell, in latitude 15° N., longitude 18° W.; which carried away main-top-trussel-trees, threw the main-topmast on deck, carried away main and main-topsail yards in the slings, and took the mizzen-mast by the deck, carried away main-rail, bulwarks, &c. The Rocket, in latitude 18° N., longitude 162° E.; was twice struck, which shivered the fore-royal and topgallant masts, &c.

6th. British brig Faithful, in the Bay of Tampico, Mexico; set on fire, and burnt to the water's edge. The officers and crew were saved by launching the small boat and pulling for shore—a distance of three miles—but everything on board was lost.

10th. Ship Cowper, (whaler,) in latitude 38° N., longitude 55° W.; had mainmast and main-topgallant-mast struck. The head of the mainmast was so much injured as to require a new one.

17th. Brig Executive, (of Bangor,) in latitude 34° 48′ N., longitude 72° 06′ W.; which shivered the main-topgallant-mast, main-topmast, and mainmast.

20th. Schooner Libby Shepherd, at Key West; and damaged.

24th. Ship Sea Lion, from Neuvitas for London, arrived at Charleston, S. C., in distress, having been struck by lightning, and sustained considerable damage in sails, spars, rigging, &c., and caused the vessel to leak.

25th. Bremen bark Caroline, in latitude 43° N., longitude 50° W.; which split the fore-royal-mast and topgallant-mast, and injured the topmast.

October 4th. The Mary Hall, in the Victoria Dock, Liverpool; which shattered her topgallant-mast. Ship Constellation, in the Waterloo Dock, Liverpool; which slightly injured her fore-topmast and cap.

20th. Ship Adelaide, at sea, near Gibraltar; which shivered maintop-mast and topgallant-mast.

28th. Sloop James Gorham, (of Fall River,) at the wharf at Somerset. The fluid entered the head of the mast, shivering it to pieces, and passed out through the hold and cabin, destroying nearly all the wood-work in the latter. She soon filled with water, but was afterwards towed ashore. There was no person on board.

29th. A vessel near Silver Creek, on Lake Erie, and set on fire. Ship Harriet, at sea, from Baltimore for Liverpool; had her mainmast crippled, pump split and choked, and sails and rigging damaged. Threw overboard about 100 bbls. flour, 250 bags wheat, and 300 and odd bags Indian corn. She put into Queenstown, Ireland, November 5, with over two feet of water in her hold.

November 22d. Ship General Dunlap, at sea, San Antonia W. N. W. thirty miles; which carried away her fore-royal, fore-topgallant-mast, and head of foremast.

December 19th. Ship William Hitchcock, (cotton loaded,) in latitude 45° 42′ N., longitude 47° W. The captain, in his account, says:—"The lightning

struck the mizzen-royal-mast, and, passing below, the shock was so great I was satisfied we were injured. On examination, I found the smoke to be rising from fore and aft of the ship, and in a few minutes we were unable to enter the cabins. Our only chance was to keep the fire under, until we could see some chance to abandon the vessel. After making every preparation, such as getting boats and provisions ready, we discovered a sail, and run for her. She proved to be the General Parkhill, of Charleston, Captain Pierce, who, as soon as he could understand our condition, kindly lay by us all night. Our ship became so hot that the cotton on deck, which had been taken from the house, would take fire. At noon on the 20th, we succeeded in getting safely on board the General Parkhill, and the last we saw of our ship she was a burning mass above on the ocean. We arrived at Liverpool on the 31st December. My men, as well as myself, lost all except what we stood in."

22d. Brig Geranium, in latitude 36° N., longitude 72° W.; lost fore-topgallant-mast and fore-yard.

25th. Ship Parliament, in latitude 46° 30′ N., longitude 20° 10′ W,; injuring two passengers, splitting main-topsail, and damaged fore part of the poop.

January 23d, 1856. Schooner J. R. Whiting, at anchor in the Bay of Monterey, Cal.; shivering topmast to pieces.

26th. Ship Kosmos, in latitude 44° N., longitude 57° W.; but received no damage.

February 9th. Ship Anna Tift, at sea, and sprung a leak. She was knocked down on her beam ends. Put into Havana on the 13th to repair. Damage, $10,000.

15th. Bark Venus, in latitude 37° 50′ N., longitude 76° W.; which set fire to the fore-topgallant-sail. It then passed down the foremast, tore up two deck planks, and struck one man, hurting him seriously, completely burning all his clothes, and burning him in a most awful manner. In half an hour after she was struck in the same place again, knocking down the second mate and two men, but without any injury. The vessel sprung aleak; supposed the lightning to have started the oakum out of the topsides. The seaman who was hurt was not expected to live.

March 2d. Ship Wisconsin, in latitude 37° 30′ N., longitude 74° 40′ W., during a hurricane, at 2:30 A. M., while shortening sail, an immense ball of fire struck the main-royal-masthead, and then fell on the main hatch, where it exploded with tremendous force, filling the deck with fire and sparks, with continued explosions of the particles, like detonating powder or torpedoes. Owing to the ice, sleet, and snow, with which the decks, bulwarks, rigging, and sails were covered, the fire was soon extinguished. About ten minutes afterwards a second ball struck near the same place, but was driven by the force of the wind just clear of the ship's side to leeward, where it exploded with a loud report and great commotion. There were several men furling the jib at the time, and the concussion was so great that it lifted them nearly clear of the boom. Temperature of the air 28°, and water 69°, causing an immense exhalation from the gulf, which congealed as soon as it rose, and was driven furiously over the ship, excluding the very light of day. One of the crew was knocked down and stunned for a time, but was not seriously injured. The mate was blinded by it, and probably will not recover the sight of both eyes. Had it not been for the ice, sleet, and rain, which covered the ship, there can be no doubt but that she would have been on fire from the truck to the water. The fore-topsail was blown out of the bolt-rope, and the royal-masthead seared as it were with a red hot iron, being all the damage the ship received.

7th. Hamburg bark Eliza Rubcke, in latitude 41° 14′ N., longitude 57° 55′ W.; was struck twice, slightly injuring five men. Ship Abby Brown, at sea, from Boston for New Orleans, and slightly damaged. One of the crew, William H. Pratts, of Boston, was instantly killed, and several others were injured.

10th. Ship Lucy Thompson, in latitude 43° 30′ N., longitude 44° W.; the ball broke in the slings of the main-topsail yard, and knocked down most of the watch on deck.

23d. Clipper ship Neptune's Car, at sea, from London for New York, which slightly damaged the foremast. Several of the crew were slightly injured.

25th. British brig Appoline, in latitude 38° N., longitude 64° W.; during a hurricane, which split mainsail and gaff-topsail, killed a seaman named Charles Martell, and injured the captain. British ship Lincludon Castle, at sea, and lost mizzenmast, &c.

April 16th. United States transport (steamer) Fashion, while at anchor off Salusia, Texas, and seriously injured.

23d. Brig George T. Ward, at sea, from New York for St. Marks, Florida, which damaged mainmast.

May 1st. A man on board ship Silas Holmes, at the mouth of the Mississippi, and remained prostrated four days. No marks of the lightning could be found on the vessel.

23d. Schooner Fawn, while at anchor at Monrovia, losing fore-topmast, and badly injuring foremast.

24th. Schooner Maria, while loading in Musquash (N. B.) Harbor, which carried away foremast, and did other damage.

25th. Schooner Arab, at Washington, N. C., which tore her mainmast to pieces.

26th. Schooner C. North, off Sheboygan, Lake Erie, considerably damaging her masts and rigging.

June 6. Schooner Adela, off Captain J. Godfrey's plantation, South Carolina, which split fore-topmast, foremast, and fore-gaff, and killed almost instantly the mate, Albert Bieken, a native of the kingdom of Hanover. Schooner Jenny Lind, in the New Basin, New Orleans, which shattered her main and main-top masts. In its progress it cut some of the rigging and knocked a block off.

7th. Bark Fame, on Lake Erie, off the mouth of Grand River, Canada West, and six of her crew were badly burned and injured. No mark of the fluid could be seen on the vessel.

8th. Sloop Alexander, at the wharf at New Haven, and had mast and top-mast shivered into splinters. Schooner Sandusky, at the mouth of Carp River, Lake Erie, which shivered mainmast. Schooner Edward Wootten, at Pantago, North Carolina; the fluid left the mast and went down the center-board rod.

18th. Schooner Juana, off Cape Henlopen, and was so badly injured in sails, masts, and rigging, and also sprung a leak, that Captain Floyd with great difficulty reached the Delaware breakwater next morning.

23d. Brig Ganges, lying at Willink's ship-yard, Savannah; which shivered main-topmast, and slightly injured mainmast. Four men, who were in the fore-castle, were so stunned by the shock as to be unable to speak for some minutes. Ship Plymouth, in Mobile Bay; damage not stated.

27th. Schooner John T. Grice, at Wilmington, N. C.; which splintered the mast a little. The mate was knocked down, but, jumping up again, accused one of his "brother chips" of having struck him.

28th. Brig Susan, at anchor off Port-au-Prince; which shivered the foremast down to the deck, and did considerable damage on deck; parted the ring-stopper of the larboard anchor, which parted the chain and lost the anchor; also set the foremast on fire. The crew escaped injury.

30th. Ship Conqueror, in Mobile Lower Bay, nearly loaded with cotton, with the steamer Pratt alongside. The fluid descended into the hold, leaving many marks of its progress, but up to the departure of the steamer no symptons of fire was discovered in the hold.

July 2d. Schooner Mary Louisa, near Raccoon Keys, south of Rumley Marsh; which split the mainmast from the top to the deck. All hands on board were severely injured; they lost the power of speech, and were several hours recovering.

6th. Ship Mary Bradford, at Battery Wharf, Boston; which shivered fore-topgallant-mast. A bark off Point Shirley, near Boston; damage not stated.

10th. British ship Eliza Pickering, at anchor off the Tete-de-Flandres, near Brussels, Belgium. A pilot, a customs officer, and one seaman were the only

persons on deck. The fluid struck down the seaman, tore all his garments to shreds, and cast him senseless against the bulwarks. The man was not killed, but remained senseless when the last accounts left that place, twelve hours after the accident. The left side, from the neck to the feet, is seared as with a hot iron. Schooner Young America, (three masted,) while lying in Havana, Cuba; lost mizzen-topmast and damaged mizzenmast.

12th. Ship —— Cooper, at Belize, Honduras; which shivered fore-royal and topgallant masts. Ship Lockwood, and a bungay, at Belize, Honduras; both had their masts damaged. At the same time a large Dutch bark, at the Bogue, was also struck; her foremast, from the truck down, entirely shattered to pieces, her sheet chains all cut to pieces, her rigging also. All the fore-yards ripped up, (or down, more properly speaking,) and a hole, near four feet square, cut through the main deck, where it either followed the chain or went through the bowport into the water. No one was seriously injured; two were stunned for a short time.

15th. Schooner Ellen, at Mackay's Landing, on Pocotaligo Creek, S. C.; which split maintop-mast and mainmast. There was no one on board at the time.

24th. A schooner, passing Lake St. Peter, a few miles above Three Rivers, Canada; had her mast shattered. Three or four men on deck, near the mast, were prostrated, and one, named Paquet, was instantly killed.

28th. Pilot-boat Relief, of Galveston, when off the Point; which shivered mainmast.

30th. Schooner Senator, at Locust Point, near Baltimore; and had mainmast shivered.

31st. British brig Roderick Dhu, at anchor in the lower bay, New York; which shivered the fore-topgallant-mast, &c. Schooner Leo, at ——, and lost foremast.

August 3d. Bark General Jones, off Sewell's Point; and had royalmast damaged.

4th. Schooner Cornelius, off Sewell's Point; which shivered mainmast from top to the deck. United States frigate St. Lawrence, at Gosport Navy-Yard; damage inconsiderable.

5th. Bark Lizzie Boggs, at Sagua; which set fire to the fore-royal-yard, burned the sail, and did other damage.

8th. Schooner Maria, in Vineyard Sound; the fluid struck the main-topmast, passing down the mainmast, splintering it badly, thence out through the house without further injury. A new ship on the stocks at Quincy Point, Boston, setting it on fire. Two men in the ship were rendered senseless by the shock, and it was a long time before they recovered. Schooner Belle, of Cohasset, while lying between the Glades and Minot's Ledge, Boston Harbor, with a party of ladies and gentlemen engaged in fishing; which shivered her mainmast into splinters. A lady and gentleman in the cabin were considerably injured. A Mr. Cozzens, of Boston, sitting at the foot of the mast, was prostrated, and did not recover his senses for nearly two hours. Yacht Sybil, with a party of ladies and gentlemen, between Portsmouth and the Isle of Shoals, and had mast shivered, glass broken, &c. All on board were more or less affected by the fluid. One man was completely paralyzed in his legs for an hour or more; another was delirious for nearly the same length of time; a lady had a gold chain around her neck *melted*, and her watch at the end of it was shattered to atoms; the lady's neck was badly scorched. The most dangerous case was that of a lady whose breast and body was badly scorched, and was apparently dead for a long time, but was resuscitated by the efforts of the others, assisted by the deluging rain which fell at the time upon her exposed face and chest. Five of the affected persons were left at the Shoals, still suffering from the effects of the bolt. The lady remains in a critical situation. Schooner Pearl, of Rockport, off Boar's Head; killing one man, Mr. L. Gr ffin, of Rockport, taking the mainmast out of the vessel, and splintering the foremast all to pieces. Bark Nashua, from Boston for Philadelphia, off Bombay Hook; lost fore-topsail-yard, and had her decks ripped

up. The mate was knocked down senseless. Schooner Sachem, at anchor in the Shoals Roads; had mainmast stripped and shattered. A schooner lying off Portsmouth, N. H.; a man on board was struck on the inside of his elbow, so that his arm doubled up and remains so.

9th. Schooner Brontes, off the west end of St. Domingo, splintering topmast and topgallant-mast, and stunning one man slightly.

13th or 20th. Schooner Julia Ann, at Georgetown, S. C.; shivering her fore-topmast, and tearing her sails. A negro man on board was instantly killed while overhauling the chain—he was badly mutilated. Two or three other men on board were stunned from the shock.

27th. Schooner Carrie Sandford, at sea; had mainmast considerably injured, and lost head of foremast. Ship Marathon, in latitude 28° 19′ N., longitude 76° W.; which shivered the fore-topgallant chain-works, and did other damage. Schooner Stephen Hotchkiss, at sea; lost foremast, and was otherwise damaged.

September 20th. Smack Viola, of New London, lying in Black Point Bay; which destroyed her mast. A sail-boat, in Providence Harbor, and damaged; Mr. Goddard, who was standing by the mast, was struck on the shoulder, the fluid passing down his side to the deck of the boat, tearing to shreds his clothes on that side, and one of his boots, and leaving a line of laceration upon the surface of his body. Though suffering much pain, he is considered out of danger. Schooner Drummond, while at anchor off the Fire Island Lighthouse; the fluid came in contact with her topmast, which was severed near the masthead, then down the mainmast, shivering out large splinters as it passed spirally to the hold; started her trunk, and came out ripping up her decks, at the same time stunning the crew, one of them severely. Two other boats have been struck within half a mile of the same place this summer.

The number of persons killed by the lightning, and those whose deaths have resulted from lightning by having to leave the vessel, is thirty-seven, (37.) The number of persons stated to have been injured by the lightning, eighty-five, (85,) and three accounts which says several, and one account which says all hands were seriously injured. Of the 244 vessels struck by lightning, eight of the number, including cargoes, were burnt; two were sunk, and twenty were set on fire. Six vessels were each struck twice, and one was struck three times by the lightning. One vessel struck was a propeller, three were steamboats, and three were steamships. Five of the two hundred and forty-four vessels were furnished with conductors, equal to about two in one hundred. The damage in these five cases amounted to about nothing. In the case of the clipper ship Flying Scud, the hands were twice very severely shocked; in the Gem of the Sea some of the passengers were benumbed by the shock; and in the United States ship Portsmouth three of the men who were in the foretop were shocked, but not injured. In the case of the Gem of the Sea the conductors were destroyed.

In the case of the steamers Northern Light and State of Georgia, their mainmasts were shivered; in the Fashion, on Lake Michigan, it is said that a passenger's clothes were set on fire by the lightning; and in the United States steamer Fashion, it is said she was damaged. The steamboats were not damaged. Steamships furnished with masts require conductors to protect the spars, but steamboats do not require such appendages.

I have never heard of a claim for loss from damage by lightning being made upon marine insurance companies in any case where the vessel was furnished with conductors; but they have paid millions of dollars for damage and losses by lightning on vessels and cargoes where the vessels

were without these necessary appendages. The marine insurance companies in the city of New York, by a resolution adopted by the Board of Underwriters, deduct 2½ per cent from the amount of premium of insurance *on the vessels* in all cases where they are furnished with lightning conductors. I have never known of a case of damage to an iron ship by lightning.

It has been urged by some, as an excuse for not providing lightning conductors, that such fixtures attract the lightning, and therefore are dangerous. Such fears are needless. If lightning conductors are dangerous, from a supposed attraction for lightning, it would follow that iron ships, steamers, and steamboats would be unsafe during lightning storms, from the abundance of metals used in their construction attracting the lightning. Experience shows that the more metal the greater safety. No case of loss or damage by lightning has been sustained by a public armed ship in the American or English navy, in any case where the vessels were furnished with conductors, the continuity of which was uninterrupted to the water.

Since steamboats and railroad cars have been in use scores of millions of persons have been conveyed by them, and not one instance has been known of loss of life by lightning in either, and there is but one instance of death by lightning in a building furnished with lightning rods, and no case of loss of life by lightning in a vessel furnished with conductors. Need I say anything more in favor of conductors?

E. MERIAM

Brooklyn Heights, N. Y., October 3, 1856.

P. S. Since the above statement was drawn up, and after it was put in type, I received accounts of eight other vessels which have been struck by lightning within the term, increasing the aggregate to three hundred and fifty-two, (352.) The names of these vessels are as follows:—

June 30th. The masts of three ships (names not given) were struck at Whampoa, China, and badly shattered.

July 25th. Ship Sarah Martin, which arrived at Liverpool, from Pensacola, reports:—July 25th, whilst beating down the Gulf of Mexico encountered a severe gale, attended with heavy chain lightning, the wind shifting frequently to opposite points of the compass, and blowing with great violence. At 10 A M. the main-royal-yard was shattered to atoms by the lightning, and sail set on fire, the electric fluid striking the deck in the midst of the crew, (who were at work on the lee side,) and escaping through one of the ports. Parts of the burning royal had fallen on to the main-topgallant-sail, but before it had time to spread the rain came in torrents and extinguished it, otherwise the chances were in favor of the ship's name finding its way into the column of disasters headed, "Left port, and not since heard of," the sea being too heavy to escape in boats. This is the second time the same mast has been struck by lightning within the last six months.

Sept. 6th. Schooner Samuel Welch, at sea, about 40 miles from Aspinwall; which injured mainmast, main-topmast, main-gaff-topsail, and mainsail.

20th. Sloop Helen Smith, at the wharf at Sag Harbor, L. I., but was not seriously injured. The fluid passed down into the hold. Steamer Barroso, on her passage from Greenport to Sag Harbor. The fluid passed down the smoke-stack and there passed off. The pilot at the wheel was rendered senseless for a moment.

Oct. 2d. Steamship Black Warrior, opposite the Moro Castle, (Cuba,) about four miles off shore, between 8 and 9 o'clock, P. M., encountered a heavy storm. The mainmast (supplied with lightning rods) was struck, the force of the electricity being so great as to knock down the captain, who was on deck, but with-

out doing him any injury. Happily the lightning enabled the steamer's crew to see a large ship, with all sail set, coming from the opposite direction, and bearing down full upon the steamer. Notwithstanding the Black Warrior had four lanterns lighted, the darkness and the rain were so great that though at so short a distance not even the light of the Moro could be seen. Upon being made aware of their danger the two vessels had barely time to tack ship, so that they passed each other almost touching—a horrible catastrophe being thus avoided. E. M.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

ACTION TO RECOVER BALANCE OF FREIGHT.

United States Circuit Court. Before Judge Nelson. Decision on appeal from the Judge at Admiralty, Sept. 15, 1856. Wm. B. Grant and others *vs.* Cornelius Poillon.

The libelants were owners of the ship Constellation, of which Wm. L. Flitner was master and part owner, and carried from this port to the port of San Francisco, in the years 1849–50, 250,000 feet of lumber and 29,700 cypress shingles—freight to be paid at the rate of $55 per thousand feet for the lumber, and $20 per thousand for the shingles, amounting in the whole to the sum of $13,944 02. The net proceeds of the sale at San Francisco amounted only to the sum of $11,494 93, which was received by the master, leaving a balance of $2,449 09 due, to recover which amount the present suit is brought. The defence set up is as follows: Wm. L. Flitner, the master, and part owner of the Constellation, which was lying at the port of New York in September, 1849—the other owners residing in the States of Maine and Massachusetts, entered into a joint stock association with the respondents, and several other persons not made parties to the suit, called the Constellation Lumber Company, for the purpose of purchasing and furnishing cargo for the vessel. The cargo to be composed of lumber and such articles as the company might deem proper, and after the departure of the vessel from New York the cargo was taken under the control and disposition of the master, who was to act under instructions from the company, and to be considered its agent. The cargo was also consigned to him, and a commission of five per cent to be allowed him for making the sales at the port of destination. The price of the freight was agreed on, as already stated. The stock of the company consisted of twelve shares, Flitner, the master, having subscribed two of them, and thus being the owner of one-sixth of the cargo, besides his interest to the amount of five per cent of the sales. The usual bill of lading was entered into by the master, in which he was made the assignee. The cargo was under the directions of Flitner, and amounted to the net sum stated. It is insisted, on the part of the respondents, that the libelants were jointly concerned in the adventure, and bound to contribute their proportionate share of the loss, and hence that the purchase and shipment of the cargo were a partnership transaction, requiring an account to be taken, and the partnership affairs adjusted, in order to ascertain the balance, if any, due them. And that, as a Court of Admiralty, is incompetent to adjust the open accounts of a partnership transaction, the Court has no jurisdiction in the case. The position assumes that Flitner, the master, acted on behalf of the owners in entering into the Joint Stock Association for the purchase of the cargo, with a view to freight the ship, for otherwise, there is no pretext for this ground of defense. But it is not pretended that the owners participated in getting up the adventure, or had any knowledge of it except the master; and it is quite clear that he had no authority to bind them in a transaction of this nature, either as master or part owner. It was said of the argument, that the bringing of this suit confirmed the acts of the masters. It may be said the bringing of the suit affirms the contract in the bill of lading, but no part of the joint association contract appears in that instrument. It is in the usual form,

the Constellation Lumber Company appearing as the shippers of the cargo. The confirmation of the Joint Stock Company is not at all involved in the suit, so far as the absent owners are concerned. It is further urged, that conceding that the absent owners were in no wise connected with the purchase and shipping of the cargo, and hence no partnership transaction involved as to them, still a recovery of the balance of the freight cannot be justly admitted until the settlement of the joint concern between Flitner, one of the libelants, and the other members of the company, and that this ground is equally fatal to the jurisdiction. I am inclined to concur in this view. Flitner is one of the part owners of the vessel, and as such is entitled to a portion of the freight. For this reason he is made one of the libelants. Being, also, jointly interested in the cargo, and one of the shippers, he is bound to contribute his share of the balance of freight claimed. And whatever may be that contributive share, the respondents are entitled to have it deducted from his portion of the freight, or if the contributive share exceeds this, the balance should be paid to his co-owners, or accounted to them as his portion of the freight to be paid. I do not see, therefore, that justice can be administered in the case without an account taken between one of the libelants and the respondents, involving the whole of the joint stock operations in the purchase of the cargo, and which this Court is incompetent to take. It would be manifest injustice to allow him to recover in the case his share of the freight, leaving the respondents to bring a cross suit for contribution; and I do not see how this can be avoided short of an adjustment of the partnership concern in the cargo. A Court of Equity can adjust the interests of all parties concerned in one suit, and we think the libelants should have resorted to that tribunal. I concur, therefore, with the disposition of the case below, and confirm the decree dismissing the libel with costs.

ACTION FOR LOSS OF SMUGGLED GOODS.

Nisi Prius Court, Liverpool, England, September, 1856. Before Mr. Baron Bramwell. Brennan *vs.* Howard.

Mr. Ovens opened the pleadings. The action was one of trover for breach of guaranty, and the defendant pleaded that he had not given any. There were also technical defenses. The suit had been tried at the last assizes for Liverpool, and the plaintiff then, after the whole case was gone through, objected to be nonsuited on technical grounds taken to the form of the pleadings. The action was now renewed.

Mr. John Brennan, a silk merchant, in Manchester, was in the habit of making consignments of silk to New York, where he had an agent and a warehouse. In November, 1853, Mr. Brennan came down to Liverpool, and saw a person named Devine, at that time an emigrant runner in the employ of Grimshaw & Co., who introduced him to the defendant, Mr. Henry Howard, a berthing clerk in Mr. Grimshaw's office. With him he entered into an arrangement by which it was intended to evade the customs duties of the United States, and to introduce a quantity of silk goods without the payment of duty, which was at that time 25 per cent ad valorem. The plaintiff stated that the nature of this arrangement was, that he should send from Manchester to Devine, in Liverpool, certain goods, packed in such hampers as would contain three dozens of porter. Devine was to hand these over to Howard whenever the latter should state he was ready to transmit them to New York by some of Messrs. Grimshaw's ships. The defendant guarantied the plaintiff that for £7 each he would have the hampers delivered at the plaintiff's warehouse in New York, safe from all risks other than that of the loss of the vessel. The plaintiff sent to Liverpool, in pursuance of that arrangement, three hampers at different times. The first he valued at £181 7s. 3d., the second at £127 14s. 6d., and the third at £152 6s. 7d. The first two never reached the plaintiff's agent at all, and the third, which did reach, was in part deprived of its contents, goods being abstracted to the amount of £69 10s. The action was for the value of the goods thus lost to the plaintiff. The plaintiff was fully corroborated by Devine, who was present at the agreement between plaintiff

and defendant, and to some extent by a witness named Grierson. The defendant said the nature of the agreement was, that he, having from his position influence with the mates of several ships, would place certain goods for the plaintiff in their care, to be delivered in New York to his agent, but that he never gave any guaranty of delivery. The terms, as he swore positively, were, that he was to have 25s. each hamper for himself, that Devine was to have 25s., and that each mate having charge of a parcel should, on delivery, have £5 from plaintiff's agent at New York. Mr. M'Kenna, one of the mates, was examined in corroboration.

These were the facts given in evidence, and on which Mr. Atherton for the plaintiff, and Mr. James, Q. C., with whom was Mr. Brett, for the defendant, addressed the court and jury, after which Baron Bramwell summed up; and the jury, having consulted, returned a verdict for the defendant.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

STRINGENCY IN THE MONEY MARKET—DIFFICULTY IN MAKING COLLECTIONS—CHARACTER NECESSARY TO CREDIT—INGENIOUS FRAUDS AND FORGERIES—THE USURY LAWS—POLITICAL EXCITEMENTS—MARINE INSURANCE, AND WHY IT IS NOT PROFITABLE—PRODUCT OF GOLD, AND BUSINESS AT THE ASSAY OFFICE AND MINTS—THE BANK MOVEMENT—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR SEPTEMBER—REVENUE FROM CASH DUTIES—COMPARATIVE SHIPMENTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE—SUPPLYING EUROPE WITH BREADSTUFFS—DRAIN OF THE PRECIOUS METALS—FINANCIAL CRISIS IN EUROPE, ETC., ETC.

THERE has been an increased pressure for money in all the Northern and Western States, particularly in the latter, where capital has been quite scarce. From this cause collections have been backward, and in some districts it has been almost impossible to secure the payment of obligations as they become due. At the South the money market has been easier, and at the principal money centers there, capital is easily obtained at simple interest. We notice an unusual number of small failures at the North and West, among both dry goods merchants and produce dealers, the stringency in the money market having compelled many to suspend who might otherwise have gone on for several years.

In former articles we have insisted upon personal character as an item of the greatest importance in the basis of credit and confidence, and every day's experience confirms the truth of this position. Some very singular frauds have recently been discovered, the operations in one case extending throughout the United States and Canada. In the particular case referred to, an ingenious swindler managed, by forged bills of lading, forged bills of exchange, and forged indorsements, to obtain large sums of money throughout the entire Atlantic seaboard, as far as New Orleans. His modes of operation were various, but all showed great skill and unparalleled boldness and success. By the aid of confederates, he procured forged letters of credit mailed to the address of his intended victims, and awaiting his own arrival; and forged bills of exchange, to cover purchases of cotton, were transmitted in advance of his movements. In New York, and at St. Louis and other points, he managed to procure fourths of exchange in London for collection by himself, and then to sell the first, second, and third, erasing all allusion to the fourth; or he obtained sets of three, and multiplied these by ingenious maneuvers, in all cases obtaining the money for both the original and duplicate. He was at last arrested, and part of the money has been recovered. His victims are among the leading bankers of the country.

Another instance of fraud, for a long time successful, has just been detected at New York. The plan was to buy business paper of a note-broker and borrow money upon it as collateral, until capitalists were accustomed to the business, and then to multiply the notes or create spurious ones, of course with forged signatures, using them only as collateral security, and paying off the loan before the paper matured, or substituting a fresh batch, withdrawing the first, ostensibly for collection. This trick was detected through the carelessness of Charles B. Huntington, one of the operators, who obtained a loan upon a note four days overdue. The lender, in making a memorandum of the securities deposited, discovered the maturity of this note, and immediately, without consultation with the borrower, sent it to the supposed drawer for collection. The forgery was then discovered, and the borrower at once arrested. About four hundred thousand dollars of forged paper then came to light, most of which had been hypothecated for loans either with private capitalists or at the banks, chiefly with the former.

These, and other cases of fraud which might be mentioned, show that there is too little discrimination in regard to the character of those whom our merchants and bankers receive to their confidence. No banker should pay a large sum of money to an entire stranger, no matter what the nature of the demand, unless it is in redemption of his own signature requiring no indorsement; and no person of doubtful character, living in luxurious style without known means to correspond, should receive trust and confidence. But the last mentioned fraud suggests another consideration—the necessity for the repeal of the usury laws. Men in business will borrow money, no matter what the market rate; but under the present law they are obliged to do it indirectly when the rate is over legal interest, and this opens a wide door for fraud and forgery. The whole system of money lending outside of the banks, during three-fourths of the year, is a violation of the law—a law so repugnant to common sense that it never was, and never will be respected or obeyed. If the law were repealed, borrowers could then obtain the money directly of the lenders, and much of the risk and annoyance of the present system would be abolished.

The business of the country has been disturbed to some extent by the excitement attendant upon the political campaign, but the question will be settled soon after this reaches our nearest readers, and we may look for four years of quiet.

This country has all the elements of great commercial and political prosperity, and we have great faith in the promise its youth has given of a higher destiny than has heretofore been awarded to any of the nations of the earth. We do not expect that its rulers will be immaculate, or its social condition perfect, nor do we believe in a political millennium under the domination of any political party; but we do hope that ultraism of all kinds will speedily run itself into the ground, or so exhibit its naked deformity as to excite against it universal loathing and contempt.

The subject of marine insurance is attracting much attention. Several companies have become insolvent, and it is really difficult to find a reliable underwriter who is so disencumbered as to be willing to take a single special risk. A few writers have attacked the mutual system, as if it were responsible for the evil; but it is evident that any rate of insurance which would pay an incorporated company with a stock capital, would also be profitable to an association organized upon the mutual principle. One remedy—and perhaps the only one

whose effect would be immediate—is, the raising of the premium, and this must be the inevitable result under any system, unless the gross percentage of losses can be greatly lessened.

We call this an age of improvement, and yet it would appear that life and property are not as safe upon the sea as they were a few years ago, and that we are retrograding in this respect. The evil must be probed before we can provide a remedy. In searching for the cause of these accumulating disasters, we must inquire whether it is in the material or personal of the ship. Are the ships now launched less seaworthy than formerly, and if so, is the fault in the materials, model, or workmanship? Has safety been sacrificed to speed? Are ships built with greater reference to rapid voyages and quick returns than to the special object of delivering cargo in good condition? If the ship is quite as strong and seaworthy as of yore, is the difficulty further on, and if so, is it in the loading or sailing? Are shipowners too eager of gain, and do they load their vessels too deeply? Is it true, that the greater number of disasters the last year happened to vessels loaded beyond the limit of prudence? Are our captains becoming less trustworthy? While wages have advanced in every other department of industry, has the pay of shipmasters been too limited to secure the best service or to attract to the profession the necessary supply of able, trustworthy men? Has anything been done to make the life of a sailor less attractive to the imagination of the young and enterprising? Is the source of the difficulty here a disinclination on the part of many of the intelligent young men of this country to engage in any pursuit which requires active manual labor? These questions are more easily asked than answered, but we doubt not that they will suggest to the reflecting the true causes of the increased destruction of property upon the sea. There has been, we think, too much legislative interference already with this subject, and we do not believe that Congress can control the adverse elements. The evil will work its own cure. As long as property could be fully insured, the merchant could be careless in regard to the danger of disaster. But the absolute certainty of protection from loss, is now giving place to well-defined doubts, and the merchant, no longer relying wholly upon the underwriter, must look a little closer to the safety of his own vessel.

The product of gold from California for the current year will be larger than for any previous year. The drouth has enabled the miners to search the wet bottoms; while the fall rains will work out a large yield from the dry ravines, now in course of preparation. The mint at San Francisco has not been in operation since our last, owing to the want of some essential chemicals, but the quantity sent forward to the Atlantic has not been thereby much increased. The following will show the business at the Assay Office:—

DEPOSITS AT THE ASSAY OFFICE, NEW YORK, FOR THE MONTH OF SEPTEMBER.

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Foreign coins	$5,000 00	$13,300 00	$18,300 00
Foreign bullion	55,000 00	1,600 00	56,600 00
Domestic bullion	1,515,000 00	11,600 00	1,526,600 00
Total deposits	$1,575,000 00	$26,500 00	$1,601,500 00
Deposits payable in bars			1,585,600 00
Deposits payable in coin			16,000 00
Gold bars stamped			1,265,615 00
Transmitted to U. States Mint, Philadelphia, for coinage			174,448 00

The deposits include $250,000 California Mint bars.

We also annex a statement of the business at the Philadelphia Mint for the month of September :—

GOLD DEPOSITS.

California gold	$253,485 00	
Gold from other sources	18,515 00	
		$272,000 00
Silver deposits, including silver purchases		329,950 00

COINAGE.

	No. of pieces.	Value.
Gold—Dollars	162,198	$162,198
Silver—Quarter dollars	560,000	140,000
Three-cent pieces	340,000	10,200
Total	900,000	$150,200
Copper—Cents	183,400	1,834
Total gold, silver, and copper	1,245,598	$314,232

The deposits at the United States Branch Mint at New Orleans, for September, were as follows :—

DEPOSITS OF GOLD.

California gold	$8,046 90	
Gold from other sources	719 65	
		$8,766 55

SILVER DEPOSITS.

Silver parted from California gold	$50 92	
Silver from other sources	149,172 36	
		149,223 28
Total gold and silver deposits		$157,989 83

The contraction of the banks has continued, and the specie in the vaults at New York has been lower than at any previous time during the current year. The decreased discounts has been greater than shown by the total of loans and discounts, because a portion of the falling off in the latter has been made up by loans on call, which can be made available at a moment's warning. We doubt if this system of loaning out large sums on call does not injure the stability of the market. It doubtless enables the banks to pay larger dividends, as they can keep their funds out to the last moment; but it also creates sudden fluctuations in the money market, as the demand comes at the same moment from each lender, and is not expected, like the maturity of a business note. We annex a statement of the weekly averages of the New York city banks :—

WEEKLY AVERAGES NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Date.	Capital.	Loans and Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Jan. 5, 1856.	49,453,660	95,863,390	11,687,209	7,903,656	83,534,893
Jan. 12.....	49,453,660	96,145,408	11,777,711	7,612,507	77,931,498
Jan. 19.....	49,453,660	96,382,968	13,385,260	7,462,706	82,652,828
Jan. 26.....	49,692,900	96,887,221	12,733,059	7,506,986	78,918,315
Feb. 2.....	49,692,900	97,970,611	13,640,437	7,622,827	82,269,061

Date.	Capital.	Loans and Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Feb. 9.....	49,692,900	98,344,077	14,233,329	7,819,122	82,848,152
Feb. 16.....	49,692,900	99,401,315	15,678,736	7,693,441	88,085,944
Feb. 23.....	49,883,420	100,745,447	15,835,874	7,664,688	87,680,478
March 1...	49,784,288	102,632,235	15,640,687	7,754,392	88,604,377
March 8...	49,784,288	103,909,688	15,170,946	7,888,176	88,749,625
March 15...	49,784,288	104,528,298	14,045,024	7,863,148	88,621,176
March 22...	49,784,288	104,533,576	14,369,556	7,912,581	89,390,261
March 29...	51,113,025	104,745,307	14,216,841	7,943,253	88,186,648
April 5...	51,113,025	106,962,018	13,381,454	8,347,498	91,008,408
April 12...	51,113,025	107,840,435	12,626,094	8,281,525	91,081,975
April 19...	51,113,025	106,765,085	12,958,132	8,221,518	90,875,737
April 26...	51,113,025	105,538,864	13,102,857	8,246,120	89,627,280
May 3...	51,113,025	105,325,962	12,850,227	8,715,163	92,816,063
May 10...	51,113,025	103,803,793	13,317,365	8,662,485	89,476,262
May 17...	51,113,025	103,002,320	12,796,451	8,488,152	88,720,415
May 24...	51,113,025	102,207,767	13,850,333	8,335,097	87,094,300
May 31...	51,458,508	102,451,275	14,021,289	8,269,151	86,775,313
June 7...	51,458,508	103,474,921	16,166,180	8,430,252	90,609,243
June 14...	51,458,508	104,168,881	17,414,680	8,360,735	91,602,245
June 21...	52,705,017	105,626,995	17,871,955	8,278,002	93,715,837
June 28...	52,705,017	107,087,525	17,069,687	8,250,289	93,239,243
July 5...	53,170,317	109,267,582	16,829,236	8,637,471	100,140,420
July 12...	53,170,317	109,748,042	14,793,409	8,405,756	95,663,460
July 19...	53,170,317	110,873,494	15,326,131	8,346,243	95,932,105
July 26...	53,170,317	111,346,589	13,910,858	8,386,285	92,365,040
Aug. 2...	53,658,039	112,221,563	14,328,253	8,646,043	93,847,317
Aug. 9...	53,658,039	112,192,322	13,270,603	8,676,759	92,220,370
Aug. 16...	53,658,039	111,406,756	12,806,672	8,584,499	92,013,229
Aug. 23...	53,985,068	110,188,005	12,914,732	8,588,413	90,127,223
Aug. 30...	53,985,068	109,373,911	12,965,236	8,589,745	87,776,242
Sept. 6...	53,985,068	109,560,943	13,098,876	8,887,860	89,350,154
Sept. 13...	53,985,068	109,579,776	12,281,387	8,741,064	88,044,074
Sept. 20...	54,243,043	109,715,435	12,270,685	8,760,383	90,563,865
Sept. 27...	54,243,043	108,992,205	10,873,220	8,665,193	88,453,795
Oct. 4...	54,243,043	107,931,707	11,015,184	8,830,628	88,730,804
Oct. 11...	54,243,043	107,147,392	10,382,751	8,748,930	86,078,142
Oct. 18...	54,443,043	105,918,836	10,847,010	8,697,417	86,902,852

It will be seen that the loans and discounts of the Boston banks have also declined, but the change in the specie basis is not important :—

WEEKLY AVERAGES AT BOSTON.

	September 22.	September 29.	October 6.	October 13.
Capital.....	$31,960,000	$31,960,000	$31,960,000	$31,960,000
Loans and discounts.....	53,259,000	53,092,204	52,886,330	52,528,650
Specie.....	3,479,500	3,392,751	3,436,696	3,490,358
Due from other banks.....	6,928,900	6,586,900	7,440,322	7,407,573
Due to other banks.....	5,001,600	4,506,149	4,280,562	4,538,195
Deposits.....	15,657,600	15,863,528	16,387,424	16,439,534
Circulation.....	4,450,000	7,093,518	7,756,018	7,672,638

The imports of foreign goods have received a check, and the gain upon the previous year since our last, has not been important. The total imports at New York for the month of September has been $1,287,637 greater than for September, 1855, $1,042,474 greater than for September, 1854, but $1,983,342 less than for September, 1853. We annex a comparative summary, as follows :—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK IN SEPTEMBER.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Entered for consumption....	$14,791,080	$10,582,731	$11,859,017	$10,934,435
Entered for warehousing....	1,577,358	2,755,603	1,566,377	3,264,622
Free goods.....	628,290	769,195	489,126	1,026,208
Specie and bullion	296,026	159,359	107,205	84,097
Total entered at the port....	$17,292,704	$14,266,888	$14,021,725	$15,309,362
Withdrawn from warehouse.	1,709,052	3,181,316	2,311,341	3,457,564

The increase in September is much less than the average for the year. The total imports at New York since January 1st, are $58,462,768 greater than for the corresponding period of 1855, $20,854,522 greater than for the same period of 1854, and $17,845,760 greater than for the same period of 1853, as will appear from the annexed comparative table :—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR NINE MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Entered for consumption....	$125,138,189	$112,763,834	$84,665,055	$128,900,191
Entered for warehousing....	17,391,246	24,569,713	19,187,452	28,494,662
Free goods.....	10,964,816	13,118,058	10,252,994	14,701,645
Specie and bullion..... ...	1,907,257	1,941,141	678,999	1,150,770
Total entered at the port....	155,401,508	152,392,746	114,784,500	173,247,268
Withdrawn from warehouse.	11,682,018	17,537,217	19,471,459	19,094,642

The last three months have been the heaviest of the year in the aggregate; but the comparative increase in imports was greatest during the second quarter. The total for July was the largest ever received at the port in a single month. We annex a quarterly comparison :—

QUARTERLY STATEMENT OF FOREIGN IMPORTS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
First quarter.....	$50,326,718	$47,260,473	$35,200,366	$51,871,305
Second quarter.....	47,499,805	47,552,902	32,747,063	56,430,604
Third quarter	57,564,985	57,579,371	46,837,071	64,945,359
Jan. 1st to Sept. 30th ..	$155,401,508	$152,392,746	$114,784,500	$173,247,268

The increase in the imports in September is wholly in general merchandise, the receipts of dry goods having diminished, especially toward the close of the month. Thus the total imports of dry goods at New York for September were $424,334 less than for September, 1855, only $966,176 more than for September, 1854, and $2,913,124 less than for September, 1853, as will appear from the annexed comparison :—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR SEPTEMBER.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	$3,200,641	$1,372,654	$2,607,170	$2,1[illegible]4,266
Manufactures of cotton.	1,199,298	553,577	1,042,843	1,050,922
Manufactures of silk.....	3,864,625	2,095,460	2,380,508	1,880,926
Manufactures of flax.....	767,925	520,167	753,019	815,542
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	585,535	601,476	648,472	600,514
Total.....	$9,618,024	$5,143,334	$7,432,012	$6,502,170

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool	$287,924	$848,882	$267,575	$524,582
Manufactures of cotton	94,480	285,060	82,928	166,728
Manufactures of silk	53,968	420,830	190,682	163,573
Manufactures of flax	43,844	86,012	91,782	80,139
Miscellaneous dry goods	23,491	36,526	96,438	21,175
Total	$503,707	$1,677,310	$729,405	$956,147
Add entered for consumption	9,618,024	5,143,334	7,432,012	6,502,170
Total thrown on the market	$10,121,731	$6,820,644	$8,161,417	$7,458,317

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool	$277,410	$409,040	$91,479	$332,632
Manufactures of cotton	166,575	174,036	109,258	154,866
Manufactures of silk	120,857	429,579	76,010	181,766
Manufactures of flax	60,053	144,549	46,671	143,687
Miscellaneous dry goods	39,185	102,266	37,884	53,859
Total	$664,080	$1,259,470	$361,302	$866,810
Add entered for consumption	9,618,024	5,143,334	7,432,012	6,502,170
Total entered at the port	$10,282,104	$6,402,804	$7,793,314	$7,368,980

The total for nine months from January 1st is $28,539,064 greater than for the same period of 1855, $6,058,134 greater than for the same time in 1854, and $1,728,910 greater than for the same time in 1853 :—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR NINE MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool	$21,719,622	$16,630,785	$13,024,243	$21,315,298
Manufactures of cotton	12,217,060	12,302,238	6,514,180	12,763,076
Manufactures of silk	27,525,127	22,766,800	17,212,322	25,254,582
Manufactures of flax	6,399,184	5,579,171	4,175,570	6,649,359
Miscellaneous dry goods	4,458,053	4,686,272	4,077,029	5,873,957
Total	$72,318,996	$61,965,266	$45,003,344	$71,856,272

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool	$1,798,131	$3,542,617	$2,212,832	$2,317,929
Manufactures of cotton	882,089	2,389,186	1,984,560	1,819,911
Manufactures of silk	1,163,611	2,613,984	2,348,560	1,764,310
Manufactures of flax	208,157	725,993	1,063,168	864,858
Miscellaneous dry goods	281,733	331,562	708,199	335,975
Total withdrawn	$4,333,721	$9,603,342	$8,317,319	$7,102,983
Add entered for consumption	72,318,996	61,965,266	45,003,344	71,856,272
Total thrown upon the market	$76,652,717	$71,568,608	$53,320,663	$78,959,255

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool	$2,202,029	$4,406,036	$1,449,109	$2,771,289
Manufactures of cotton	1,160,194	2,353,548	1,251,810	1,588,051
Manufactures of silk	1,335,678	3,246,952	1,746,238	1,870,394
Manufactures of flax	298,679	896,884	771,897	780,466
Miscellaneous dry goods	314,533	432,199	597,557	492,547
Total	$5,311,113	$11,335,619	$5,816,611	$7,502,747
Add entered for consumption	72,318,996	61,965,266	45,003,344	71,856,272
Total entered at the port	$77,630,109	$73,300,885	$50,819,955	$79,359,019

We also annex a comparative statement showing the imports of a few leading articles of general merchandise for the last three months. The total of sugar is remarkably large, partly owing to the increased price :—

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE IMPORTS OF A FEW LEADING ARTICLES OF GENERAL MERCHANDISE AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR THE QUARTER ENDING SEPTEMBER 30TH.

	1854.	1855.	1856.
	Value.	Value.	Value.
Books	$155,481	$111,219	$168,825
Buttons	237,956	171,887	233,453
Cheese	12,427	11,992	17,557
Chinaware	233,683	89,081	210,909
Cigars	449,521	471,232	489,642
Coal	184,056	92,788	211,788
Coffee	1,186,673	1,396,693	1,693,341
Earthenware	481,843	279,813	350,705
Furs	329,798	361,507	493,204
Glass, plate	97,683	57,728	66,725
India-rubber	468,473	174,902	156,296
Indigo	115,634	61,741	68,418
Leather and dressed skins	513,021	460,253	708,575
Undressed skins	1,897,508	1,048,977	1,122,838
Liquors—brandy	114,970	104,486	520,665
gin	119,065	26,880	123,882
Metals—copper and ore	25,079	5,781	41,347
copper sheathing	296,386	22,306	77,926
iron, bar	1,481,355	438,207	981,515
iron, pig	343,137	211,150	119,828
iron, railroad	1,568,413	737,332	957,097
iron, sheet	163,002	170,210	355,720
lead	631,795	473,741	674,532
spelter	138,136	97,971	45,761
steel	408,486	344,273	495,186
tin slabs	1,013,065	1,130,395	191,684
tin plates			880,461
zinc	180,760	89,601	182,938
Molasses	119,893	242,764	470,248
Oil—linseed	180,065	367,299	218,110
olive	102,795	76,523	136,256
palm	36,440	.....	44,457
Rags	260,991	210,263	230,994
Salt	136,956	109,375	161,013
Sugar	1,498,428	2,970,317	6,277,339
Tea	1,714,482	566,407	854,689
Tobacco	117,862	222,463	227,156
Watches	765,914	704,512	891,157
Wines	572,355	281,189	710,103
Wool and waste	369,194	152,221	224,695

The receipts for cash duties have been very large, the total at this port since January 1st being nearly thirty-seven million dollars:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
In September.....	$4,226,340 18	$3,439,492 49	$3,523,379 50	$3,702,134 70
Previous 8 months..	30,554,094 46	28,998,336 32	22,378,083 81	33,269,089 13
Total since Jan. 1st.	$34,780,434 64	$32,437,828 81	$25,901,463 31	$36,971,223 83

The EXPORTS from New York to foreign ports for the last month have been large; the total, exclusive of specie, shows a gain of $2,017,377 upon the corresponding total of last year, and of $3,304,652 upon the total for the same period of 1854. This gain is very gratifying, especially as the shipments to the same date of the previous two years were considered quite large:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF SEPTEMBER.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Domestic produce.....	$5,579,088	$3,772,124	$5,228,637	$7,045,202
Foreign merchandise (free).....	63,470	97,839	17,369	67,325
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)..	526,658	447,664	358,896	509,752
Specie.....	1,244,191	6,547,104	1,831,684	3,738,547
Total exports.....	$7,413,407	$10,864,781	$7,436,586	$11,360,826
Total, exclusive of specie.....	6.169,216	4,317,627	5,604,902	7,622,279

The total at the same port, exclusive of specie, since January 1st is $13,591,115 larger than for the corresponding nine months of last year, $12,496,837 larger than for the same time in 1854, and $15,667,350 larger than for the same time in 1853:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR NINE MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Domestic produce.....	$40,424,718	$43,225,844	$39,808,299	$57,336,195
Foreign merchandise (free).....	1,153,996	1,316,299	3,457,965	748,075
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)..	3,392,559	3,599,643	3,781,244	2,554,353
Specie	15,007,758	30,203,743	24,439,196	27,487,086
Total exports	$59,979,031	$78,345,529	$71,486,704	$88,125,709
Total, exclusive of specie.....	44,971,273	48,141,786	47,047,508	60,638,623

The exports of specie now include an item of $1,044,559, accidentally omitted in our report for April. To show the comparative gain we have annexed a quarterly statement of the exports of domestic produce only, from New York to foreign ports for the first nine months of the year:—

QUARTERLY STATEMENT OF EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
First quarter	$11,020,636	$16,267,937	$12,958,884	$18,710,798
Second quarter.....	14,401,654	14,929,503	13,378,540	19,066,095
Third quarter.....	15,002,428	12,028,404	13,470,875	19,559,302
Jan. 1 to Sept. 30.....	$40,424,718	$43,225,844	$39,808,299	$57,336,195

We have also prepared our usual summary of the shipments of certain articles of domestic produce from New York to foreign ports since January 1st:—

EXPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM JANUARY 1ST TO OCTOBER 15TH:—

	1855.	1856.
Ashes—pots....bbls	11,258	7,083
pearls.....	1,953	1,092
Beeswax.....lbs.	144,137	181,137
Breadstuffs—		
Wheat flour..bbls.	453,995	1,413,646
Rye flour.....	17,222	11,205
Corn meal.....	42,825	64,093
Wheat.....bush.	741,955	5,522,897
Rye.....	66,144	1,205,263
Oats.....	12,211	13,640
Corn.....	3,323,798	3,287,919
Candles—mold..boxes	43,687	38,602
sperm.....	9,491	3,360
Coal.....tons	10,563	5,714
Cotton.....bales	223,126	156,592
Hay.....	4,644	3,660
Hops.....	8,526	3,612

	1855.	1856.
Naval stores....bbls.	545,532	409,908
Oils—whale....galls.	242,271	32,955
sperm.....	612,129	461,712
lard.....	91,406	44,296
linseed.....	9,790	4,006
Provisions—		
Pork.....bbls.	133,118	126,184
Beef.....	55,833	61,395
Cut meats, lbs...	15,224,276	25,984,946
Butter.....	731,687	976,427
Cheese.....	5,091,394	2,036,759
Lard.....	6,876,416	9,892,919
Rice.....trcs	16,446	31,542
Tallow.....lbs.	1,163,240	1,073,180
Tobacco, crude..pkgs	25,281	29,869
Do., manufactured. lbs	4,159,807	4,280,245
Whalebone.....	1,670,073	1,460,260

It will be seen from the foregoing that the shipments of breadstuffs continue large. The total increase in exports of flour and grain is nearly equal to ten millions of bushels at New York, and there is also a large gain at Philadelphia and Baltimore. The demand still continues, amply fulfilling the statements heretofore made under this head in regard to the probable deficiency in European harvests. It is now evident that Spain, France, and England must lean upon this country for nearly the whole of their required imports. The supply from the Black Sea has proved to be even less than estimated, and many other ports which usually furnish a surplus are now deficient at home. Happily, the harvests throughout the United States have been such that we can spare enough to fill the hungry mouths that might otherwise plead in vain. The trade in breadstuffs for export from the United States is steadily growing in importance, and will not henceforth be confined to years of European famine. Our rich fields at the West and South will produce their abundance with no expense but the tillage, the richness of the soil being in many places inexhaustible, and requiring no artificial manuring. We ought to be the most grateful people under the sun, for our prosperity is unexampled in the history of the world.

The movement of the precious metals has been attracting much attention. The exports of silver from England to China have been enormous, and the vast sums poured into that country do not reappear, the exchanges against every other country continuing enormously high, and the demand for dollars, like the cry of the horse-leech's daughters, being insatiable. Probably the civil war has had something to do with this state of things, as it has deranged trade, and induced a hoarding of specie. France has also purchased largely in London of both gold and silver, and there has been a steady drain from England for many months. At the last advices the demand for France was likely to be checked by the suspension of the National Bank and the temporary legalization of a paper currency. This is a desperate remedy for the existing difficulties, but the bank is not independent of governmental dictation as it was in former days, and grave political questions are now involved with its affairs. The hoarding process appears to be going on

again in nearly all parts of the continent of Europe, and there must be a feeling of insecurity among the middle class, much greater than appears upon the surface.

NEW YORK COTTON MARKET FOR THE MONTH ENDING OCTOBER 24.

PREPARED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY CHARLES W. FREDERICKSON, BROKER, NEW YORK.

For three weeks succeeding the date of my last monthly report (September 26th) our market was active at an advance of ¼c. a 1c. per pound. Small receipts at the South, and of rather low grades, gave a coloring to the previous reports of damage by frost; and in consequence prices, both here and at all the receiving ports, rapidly advanced, and were maintained until the last week of the month under review, when increased receipts occurred, and the crop prospects were more favorably spoken of. Speculation, on these accounts, grew languid, and the foreign advices, which were expected to be favorable, were altogether nugatory in their effect on our market. An advance of the rate of discounts by the Bank of England at once checked the upward tendency in price, and the stringency of monetary affairs on the continent gave less tone to those who usually buy the first pickings of the new crop for the mills of the Empire.

The sales for the week ending October 3d were 14,000 bales, a large portion being to arrive. The advance was ⅛c. a ⅜c. per pound on all grades. Holders, in view of their small stocks, were not anxious to sell, and the market closed buoyantly at the following:—

PRICES ADOPTED OCTOBER 3D FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	10⅜	10⅜	10⅜	11
Middling	12⅜	12⅜	12⅞	13
Middling fair	13⅛	13⅛	13⅜	14
Fair	13⅜	13⅜	14	14⅛

The demand continued active during the ensuing week, the sales being 12,000 bales, at a further advance of ⅛c. a ¼c. per pound. A large portion of this week's transactions was for export, and included various parcels in transitu. The market closed firmly:—

PRICES ADOPTED OCTOBER 10TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	11	11	11	11⅛
Middling	12⅞	13	13⅛	13⅛
Middling fair	13⅛	13⅜	13⅜	14
Fair	13⅜	14	14⅛	14⅛

The market was well supported during the week ending October 17th, the sales reaching 10,000 bales at firm prices, notwithstanding dull foreign advices and a decline in the Southern markets. At the close of the week there was increased offerings at the following:—

PRICES ADOPTED OCTOBER 17TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	11	11	11	11⅛
Middling	12⅞	13	13⅛	13⅜
Middling fair	13⅛	13⅜	13⅜	14
Fair	13⅜	14	14⅛	14⅛

For the week closing at date there has been less desire to operate. The increased receipts at the South caused a rapid fall in price, and the foreign advices being duller than anticipated, our market gave way to the extent of ⅛c. a ¼c. per pound. The transactions for the week did not exceed 5,000 bales, the market closing quietly at the following :—

PRICES ADOPTED OCTOBER 24TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	10⅛	10⅛	10⅛	10⅛
Middling	12⅜	12⅜	12⅜	12⅜
Middling fair	12¾	12¾	13	13⅛
Fair	13	13¼	13¼	14

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

FINANCES OF MARYLAND.

The State of Maryland affords a remarkable example of rapid and highly honorable recovery from the embarrassments which overtook so many of the States soon after the general revulsion of 1837. Her financial position in 1842 appeared to be almost hopeless, but good faith and prompt submission to direct taxation in her people soon replaced the public debt upon a most creditable basis :—

Loan to Chesapeake Canal		$7,194,222
To Baltimore and Ohio Railroad		4,116,043
To Susquehanna Canal		1,000,000
To Susquehanna Railroad		2,232,045
Various internal improvement loans		590,599
Total debt of State		$15,132,909
Of which held by Sinking Fund		3,426,750
Total outstanding		$11,706,159
In 6 per cents	$3,015,220	
Sterling 5 per cents	8,272,258	
4½ per cents	77,681	
3 per cents	341,000	
		11,706,159
The State holds:—		
Stock in Baltimore & Ohio Railroad	$4,182,691	
In Baltimore banks	468,406	
Bonds of Susquehanna Canal	1,192,500	
Mortgage on Susquehanna Railroad	1,500,000	
Treasurer's claims on receiving officers	672,143	
Miscellaneous stocks	99,538	
Total productive stock		8,115,278
Balance of debt on State taxables		$3,590,881
The State has claim—		
On Chesapeake Canal	$7,886,573	
Stock in same	5,000,000	
Various stocks	756,073	
Total unproductive		13,642,646

Taxables—Baltimore, city and county	$115,157,275	
Interior counties	128,776,171	
Total taxables of State		$243,933,446
Income of Treasury in 1855		1,200,762
Interest, Sinking Fund, charities, &c		985,064
Carried to balance in treasury		$214,798
Income of Sinking Fund from interest		164,408
Contributed from treasury		98,617
Total		$263,025

DIVIDENDS AND PROFITS OF BANKS IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

We compile from returns made to the Controller-General of the State of South Carolina the following table showing the capital stock, rate per cent and amount of annual dividends, together with reserved profits of banks in the State. The statement from the Controller-General's office is dated September 13, 1856 :—

	Capital stock.	Rate of last div., per cent.	Am't of dividend.	Reserved profits.
Planters' and Mechanics' Bank	$1,000,000	8	$40,000	$114,389
Union Bank of Charleston	1,000,000	6	30,000	11,025
State Bank of South Carolina	1,000,000	50c.	.....	108,619
Bank of South Carolina	1,000,000	6½	33,333	71,312
Bank of Charleston	3,160,800	8	126,432	295,609
Farmers' and Exchange Bank, Charleston.	1,000,000	8	40,000	28,825
Bank of Hamburg, S. C	500,000	12	30,000	122,073
Commercial Bank of Columbia, S. C	800,000	8	32,000	14,461
Bank of Newberry, S. C	300,000	10	15,000	50,531
Planters' Bank of Fairfield	300,000	8	12,000	26,732
Exchange Bank of Columbia	500,000	8	20,000	3,495
Merchants' Bank of Cheraw, S. C	400,000	12	24,000	53,904
Bank of Chester	300,000	10	15,000	22,437
Bank of Camden	400,000	8	16,000	56,752
People's Bank of Charleston, S. C	1,000,000	8	40,000	31,467
Bank of Georgetown, S. C	200,000	14	14,000	42,245

The Bank of the State of South Carolina, with a capital stock of $1,113,789 38, with its branches at Columbia and Camden, is not included in the list above.

WILKINS'S DIRECTORY FOR BANKERS AND UNDERWRITERS.

Mr. ALVAN WILKINS has compiled and published a volume of between 300 and 400 pages, containing a list of the insurance companies, banks, savings banks, and private bankers of the United States, with the names of the presidents, cashiers, &c. In order to obtain the information embraced in this volume, he forwarded more than 10,000 letters and circulars to all parts of the country. Every State and Territory in the Union by this means was carefully canvassed, and the result of these efforts is presented in the volume before us. A full and complete directory of this description must be valuable to business men generally; and we presume, in future editions, which are contemplated by the enterprising publisher and compiler, such a work will be produced. We commend the enterprise to the encouragement of "all whom it may concern."

CONDITION OF THE BANK OF CHARLESTON IN 1855–56.

MONTHLY CONDITION OF THE BANK OF CHARLESTON, S. C., FROM THE 1ST OF JULY, 1855, TO THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1856, INCLUSIVE, BEING ABSTRACT OF WEEKLY AVERAGES MADE TO THE CONTROLLER.

LIABILITIES.

	July, 1855.	August.	September.	October.	November.	Decemb'r.	Jan., 1856.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.
Capital stock	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800
Bills in circulation	584,493	603,172	603,562	628,113	713,103	805,787	880,704	933,945	926,592	985,863	919,984	914,126
Net profits on hand	296,285	336,129	369,592	387,499	399,723	416,955	320,179	347,009	367,128	377,742	395,820	409,500
Balances due other banks, &c.	412,616	572,208	737,842	1,051,593	886,727	1,181,163	1,090,247	762,426	685,731	854,763	797,135	644,831
Private and public depositors	523,678	448,586	429,835	443,700	414,908	455,567	515,063	747,073	687,501	554,605	545,738	478,695
	4,977,874	5,120,896	5,301,632	5,671,706	5,575,262	6,020,272	5,966,994	5,951,253	5,827,754	5,933,774	5,819,478	5,607,952

RESOURCES.

Specie on hand	215,444	254,014	191,615	238,312	227,270	278,907	281,768	298,710	298,558	307,204	334,105	287,449
Real estate	54,529	54,529	54,529	54,529	54,529	56,029	56,029	60,037	60,469	62,975	64,013	65,740
Bills of other banks	44,547	43,205	36,548	33,766	33,249	30,345	92,469	90,253	88,053	103,167	82,036	78,666
Balances due from banks, &c.	138,944	194,435	180,059	223,192	246,262	379,374	241,699	197,512	279,846	266,790	280,454	166,417
Notes discounted	2,115,089	2,337,510	2,329,056	2,302,215	2,252,080	2,217,107	2,227,335	2,168,078	2,145,079	2,155,276	2,107,308	2,043,800
Domestic exchange	762,475	982,850	1,257,806	1,502,279	1,460,734	1,769,613	1,775,374	1,840,741	1,752,885	1,751,030	1,424,531	1,408,110
Foreign exchange	458,071	152,114	38,811	63,333	91,487	87,998	113,543	117,717	155,747	334,963	578,172	613,626
Bonds	187,994	184,368	184,459	184,459	184,459	184,459	170,216	170,216	117,922	67,100	67,100	67,100
Money invested in stocks	663,248	663,248	663,248	663,248	664,748	664,748	664,748	664,748	664,748	666,248	666,998	668,698
Suspended debt	337,528	353,617	365,497	361,370	360,440	351,688	343,808	343,236	264,443	219,016	214,757	209,009
	4,977,874	5,120,896	5,301,632	5,671,706	5,575,262	6,020,272	5,966,994	5,951,253	5,827,754	5,933,774	5,819,478	5,607,952

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

The annexed statement exhibits the movement in the leading departments of the banks of New Hampshire on the 1st of September, 1856, according to official returns :—

BANKS OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Banks.	Capital.	Loans.	Specie.	Deposits.	Circulati'n.
Amoskeag	$200 000	$329,093	$7,582	$55,353	$128,595
Ashmulot	100,000	190,360	5,473	23,476	77,277
New Hampshire	150,000	220,869	5,138	28,547	70,186
Lebanon	100,000	192,099	9,668	24,859	98.208
Belknap County	80,000	148,266	4,859	7,255	78,387
Cheshire	100,000	195,823	5,150	25,768	73,750
City	150,000	261,508	2,341	26,189	114,000
Claremont	100,000	176,503	3,880	9,468	83.000
Citizens'	50,000	91,487	2,942	5,185	49,486
Connecticut River	100,000	198,446	4,612	22,976	72,065
Cochecho	100,000	212,574	2,746	59,381	78,448
Carroll County	50,000	82,321	2,895	1,500	45,445
Cheshire County	100,000	189,889	5,414	11,819	99,296
Dover	100,000	196,498	3,806	38,791	73,858
Derry	60,000	95,117	2,416	4,124	51,463
Exeter	75,000	137,921	8,625	5,000	65,897
Farmington	75,000	123,837	3,001	11,220	60,489
Francestown	60,000	129,294	2,384	26,762	52,774
Granite State	125,000	225,060	7,319	38,855	78,823
Great Falls	150,000	234,100	4,785	8,036	99,680
Indian Head	150,000	231,712	8,537	15,420	82,146
Lake	75,000	138,215	4,105	12,233	71,567
Langdon	100,000	184,144	4,677	28,203	75,587
Mechanics'	100,000	215,502	10,501	43,160	98,353
Merrimac County	80,000	164,493	13,279	34,178	73,894
Manchester	125,000	236,745	3,302	35,773	103,891
Mechanics' and Traders'	141,000	355,037	7,940	126,117	110,766
Monadnock	50,000	86,048	4,047	12,035	49,976
Merrimac River	150,000	249,468	4,054	27,361	108,600
Nashua	125,000	198,560	11,700	14,441	56,891
New Ipswich	100,000	164,339	4,405	11,675	80,321
New Market	60,000	113,823	2,786	25,194	52,474
Piscataqua Exchange	200,000	343,549	9,622	79,673	101,865
Pawtuckaway	50,000	83,110	4,179	4,188	45,749
Pittsfield	50,000	91,048	2,372	3,555	46,678
Peterborough	50,000	97,878	2,747	10,179	48,940
Pennichuck	100,000	158,980	3,571	5,719	85,534
Rochester	80,000	136,119	7,871	7,046	76,234
Rockingham	200,000	345,691	9,248	44,804	98,969
Salmon Falls	50,000	100,878	1,543	13,496	40,380
State Capital	150,000	256,586	5,640	28,583	104,506
Strafford	120,000	222,793	2,555	37,896	86,731
Sugar River	50,000	95,505	2,180	13,284	49,284
Souhegan	100,000	173,841	3,215	6,100	87,956
Somersworth	100,000	173,248	2,378	9,569	74,632
Warner	50,000	94,233	3,935	5,718	46,598
Weare	50,000	86,962	1,682	1,122	44,311
Winchester	100,000	175,273	3,195	4,600	98,385
White Mountain	50,000	94,781	3,840	10,573	46,052
Total	4,831,000	8,699,049	242,066	1,106,485	3,708,397

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

A return to the House of Commons has been made of the income and expenditure of the United Kingdom for the year ending the 31st June last. The income

was £70,233,778; the expenditure for the same period was twenty million more, that is to say, £91,803,181. The income includes £15,187,953 from property tax. The expenditure is divided into three heads. The first relates to the interest and management of the public debt, amounting to £28,319,173. The second relates to charges on the Consolidated Fund, viz: civil list, £400,542; annuities and pensions, £339,214; salaries and allowances, £162,519; diplomatic salaries and pensions, £146,591; courts of justice, £491,339; and miscellaneous charges, £187,507—total, £1,727,712. The third comprises the supply services, including the army, £21,551,242; navy, £17,813,995; ordnance, £8,378,582; vote of credit, £3,000,000; miscellaneous civil services, £6,879,604; and salaries of revenue departments, £4,132,868—total, £61,756,292. It appears, therefore, that the naval and military establishments during the war cost more than £50,000,000 sterling.

BOSTON BANK DIVIDENDS, AND VALUE OF STOCK IN 1855 AND 1856.

The following table, showing the capital and last four semi-annual dividends, with the market value of the different stocks, quoted, dividend off, April and October, 1855, April and October, 1856, was prepared by our attentive correspondent, Mr. Joseph G. Martin, stock broker, No. 10 State-street, Boston:—

		Dividends.				Value of stock.			
		1855.		1856.		1855.		1856.	
Banks.	Present capital.	Apr.	Oct.	Apr.	Oct.	April.	October.	April.	October.
Freeman's.....	$400,000	5	5	5	5	113	113	115	115
Market, par $70	560,000	5	5	5	5	85	85½	83	83½
Suffolk.....	1,000,000	5	5	5	5	128	122	125	125
Boylston.....	400,000	4½	4½	4½	4½	115	108	109	111
Exchange.....	1,000,000	4	4	5	5	109	110	113	114
Shoe & Leather	1,000,000	4	4	4½	4½	108½	109	112½	111
Atlas.....	500,000	4	4	4	4	103	104	105	105
Blackstone.....	750,000	4	4	4	4	101	103	102	104
Boston, par $50	900,000	4	4	4	4	57	58	58½	58
Eagle.....	700,000	4	4	4	4	104	105	106	108
Fanueil Hall ..	500,000	4	4	4	4	104	108	106	108
Globe.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	4	111	114	115	116
Hamilton	500,000	4	4	4	4	111	114	115	116
Mechanics'.....	250,000	4	4	4	4	104	104	106	106
Merchants'	4,000,000	4	4	4	4	106½	105½	105½	104½
New England .	1,000,000	4	4	4	4	108½	109	109	111
Shawmut.....	750,000	4	4	4	4	104	104	101½	102½
Traders'	600,000	4	4	4	3½	103	103	102	102½
Tremont.....	1,250,000	4	4	4	4	109	110	110	112
Union.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	4	109	110	110	111
Broadway.....	150,000	4	4	3½	4	100	101	99	100
Commerce	2,000,000	4	4	3½	3½	100	100½	99	100
Howard	500,000	4	4	3½	3½	98	99½	96	97
North	750,000	4	4	3½	3½	100	102	99	100
National.....	750,000	4	3½	3½	3½	100	101	99	100
Eliot.....	600,000	4	3½	3½	3½	100	100½	99	100
Atlantic	500,000	4	3	3	3	106	100	93	97
North America.	750,000	3½	4	3½	3½	101	102	101½	102
Washington....	750,000	3½	3½	3½	3½	99½	102½	101½	102
City.....	1,000,000	3½	3½	3½	3½	103	103½	104	104
Granite.....	900,000	3½	3½	3½	3½	100	101	97	97
Columbian.....	750,000	3½	3½	3½	3½	103	103½	103½	104½
State, par $60..	1,800,000	3½	3½	3½	4	64	64	64½	65
Webster.....	1,500,000	3½	3½	3½	3½	103	103½	101½	103
Mass., par $250	800,000	$8	$8	$8	$8	250	253	255	250
Maverick.....	400,000	3	3½	3½	3	97	95½	91½	93½

	Capital.	Dividends.
Amount, April, 1854	$30,160,000	$1,238,600
Amount, October, 1854	30,460,000	1,237,600
Amount, April, 1855	32,355,000	1,268,150
Amount, October, 1855	32,710,000	1,275,600
Amount, April, 1856	31,960,000	1,240,600
Amount, October, 1856	31,960,000	1,245,350

The dividend of the Massachusetts Bank is 3 1-5 per cent, which we have been obliged to give as $8 per share, (par $250,) for want of space in the table.

As compared with April last, the State and Broadway banks each increase ¼ per cent; the Traders' decreases ¼ per cent; and the Maverick pays ¼ per cent less in consequence of the extra expenses of moving to the city proper from East Boston.

The State Bank pays 4 per cent for the first time, excepting in October, 1817, and it also paid 5, April, 1815. In October, 1836, 7½ per cent was divided, five of which was considered *extra* from the proceeds of real estate sold. The State Bank was the fourth established in Boston, having commenced operations November 4, 1811, and its first dividend (3 per cent) was paid April, 1812. It has never missed but one since, (October, 1829,) and, with the exception of 1 per cent, October, 1841, no dividend of less than 2 per cent was ever declared. From its commencement to 1847 the average of regular dividends was 5.54, and since then (10 years) 6.85 per cent. The bank was abundantly able to divide 4 per cent semi-annually long before this, having accumulated some $230,000 surplus, equal to nearly 13 per cent on its capital of $1,800,000, the third largest of Boston banks. The original capital was $3,000,000, but in April, 1817, $1,200,000 was paid back to the shareholders, reducing the par value to $60. The shares sold at $66, or 110 per cent, before the dividend of 4 per cent was announced, and now they cannot be obtained at 65, ex-dividend. We have gathered together these facts, believing they will be of interest to our readers, as relating to one of the oldest "institutions" of State-street.

The following is a list of *all* the banks in Massachusetts previous to 1813:—

Years.	Banks.	Location.
1784	Massachusetts	Boston.
1792	Union	Boston.
1795	Bank of Nantucket*	Nantucket.
1796	Gloucester	Gloucester.
1799	Essex*	Salem.
1803	Salem	Salem.
1803	Boston	Boston.
1803	Newburyport*	Newburyport.
1803	Plymouth	Plymouth.
1804	Worcester	Worcester.
1804	Pacific	Nantucket.
1804	Marblehead	Marblehead.
1811	State	Boston.
1811	Merchants'	Salem.

THE PRECIOUS METALS—GOLD AND SILVER.

The *Independent*, a semi-religious, political and commercial print, introduces one of its late money articles, which we understand are prepared by an intelligent merchant, with some well considered observations touching the production, consumption, and influence of the precious metals in stimulating industry and multiplying the wealth of the country. It says:—

The precious metals are the wheels on which all trade and commerce turn; and the movements of silver and gold for money purposes are watched with the closest attention, especially by those who base their transactions on the conclusions they come to respecting the future movement of these articles, the changes

* These banks are not now in existence.

in which affect the interests quite as much as they do the imagination of mankind. Gold and silver form the general measure of value throughout the world; precisely because they have an intrinsic value for other purposes, and are easily divisible, with but small loss from wear and tear. It was surmised on the first discovery of California that gold would fall in price from its great abundance in comparison with other things, and many governments thought of demonetizing gold and making silver the only legal standard of currency. This was actually done by Holland, to her own present loss and monetary disturbance. Never was a greater mistake committed. The discovery of the gold fields of California and Australia has been a great blessing to mankind. The bearing of this discovery on production was entirely overlooked. For, at once, it increased the consumption of other articles; but extended consumption only extends production; and the gold increasing from year to year keeps up a perpetual impetus to extended production all over the earth, for gold is a great equalizer; it is of universal currency, it seeks the dearest market, and flies the place of its own produce as the cheapest.

The increased production of gold has increased our available capital, built railroads, cultivated lands, and stimulated emigration and population. New markets have been created, as by Aladdin's lamp. Melbourne and San Francisco, California and the colonies of Australia—future independent States—have risen to eminence in a very few years, at a rate which has distanced all previous progress.

The discovery of the mines of South America by the Spaniards form no precedent for the present generation. The Spaniards of that day knew not how to use the instrument placed in their power. The present generation does. The great diffusion of the gold produced in Australia and California is what keeps up its value. Could one nation keep it, it would fall in value quickly enough. Every nation that produces it gains by parting with it. Had it not been thus abundantly produced, our paper currency with all its evils—its ruinous fluctuations of value—would have been trebled or quintupled. Any advance that has taken place in real estate, in produce, or other articles, is not the result of the gold discoveries.

Consumption and production mutually act on each other. The increased products of gold, first influenced consumption, which in turn stimulated production of all articles to meet the increased demands, and the constant diffusion of gold stimulated labor in every direction, where labor was free, and where labor was rewarded, or hopes of reward were held out to it. The constant fresh production of gold keeps up this action. Gold is seeking its level, and will in a state of freedom find it among all classes, for it will raise the wages of labor, by enlarging the demand for labor. Gold has also raised the profits of capital, but not the prices of commodities generally; for of these it has multiplied the production. Capital is a great instrument of production, and gold is capital, and the more it is diffused, which there is an ever powerful tendency to, the more it acts upon production, by multiplying a demand for every other article of human necessity or enjoyment.

There are some changes at hand in the movement of the precious metals, which will attract daily more attention. Silver, instead of gold, is likely to become demonetized in Europe; and its use as money will soon be limited to China and India. The increasing imports of Chinese produce can only be obtained by silver; and the supplies for this purpose can only be obtained by abstracting it from those countries who use it as a currency, as Mexico and other silver-producing countries do not produce enough to meet the demand.

The influence in multiplying the wealth of New York itself by the discovery of California cannot be estimated, and certainly is not appreciated. Gold is not meat, or drink, or clothing, but it has been and is a grand impetus to labor to produce more meat, more drink, more of the rewards of labor, more of the ordinary blessings of life. Gold multiplies production by its distribution and its effect on labor and capital, and therefore does not depreciate in value. Being thus a powerful stimulus to labor, it multiplies population; the ratio in the in-

crease of which, since the discovery of the gold mines of California and Australia, will be found to have increased even in the old countries of Europe, whence the emigrant comes.

VALUE OF REAL AND PERSONAL PROPERTY IN BROOKLYN IN 1855-56.

We give below, from the Assessor's returns, the assessed valuation of taxable property in the several wards of the city of Brooklyn, as finally determined by the Board of Supervisors of Kings County, at their annual meeting on the 12th of September, 1856, as compared with the valuation of the same for the year 1855 :—

	1855.			1856.			
W'ds.	Real.	Personal.	Total.	Real.	Personal.	Total.	Inc. & Dec.
1	$4,937,900	$881,100	$5,819,000	$5,193,825	$1,663,794	$6,857,619	*i*$1,038,619
2	2,956,850	1,681,688	4,638,538	2,996,700	1,792,996	4,789,696	*i*151,188
3	7,311,750	2,891,650	10,203,400	7,545,350	2,727,450	10,272,800	*i*69,400
4	4,685,750	878,200	5,563,950	4,772,975	822,200	5,595,175	*i*31,225
5	2,856,225	37,600	2,848,825	2,733,050	16,000	2,749,050	*d*94,775
6	9,373,550	1,564,900	10,938,450	9,780,650	1,084,300	10,864,950	*d*73,500
7	6,806,965	92,300	6,899,265	7,059,005	101,300	7,160,305	*i*261,040
8	3,239,863	235,300	3,475,163	3,427,215	220,000	3,647,215	*i*172,052
9	5,274,250	59,000	5,333,250	5,243,430	144,700	5,388,130	*i*54,880
10	8,138,016	243,100	8,381,116	8,489,065	205,900	8,694,965	*i*313,849
11	8,007,245	335,000	8,342,245	8,398,520	302,500	8,701,020	*i*358,775
12	3,350,415	3,000	3,353,415	3,443,935	2,000	3,445,935	*i*92,520
13	6,911,750	819,000	7,730,750	6,804,425	706,150	7,010,575	*d*720,175
14	3,405,085	165,704	3,570,789	3,184,355	160,704	3,345,059	*d*225,730
15	1,627,852	14,000	1,641,852	1,599,215	3,000	1,602,215	*d*39,637
16	1,653,245	9,500	1,662,745	1,686,250	25,000	1,711,250	*i*48,505
17	2,488,100	39,900	2,528,000	2,332,364	20,000	2,352,364	*d*175,636
18	1,568,987	82,400	1,651,387	1,546,117	66,000	1,612,117	*d*39,270
	84,543,798	10,033,342	94,577,140	85,736,446	10,063,994	95,800,440	*i*1,223,300

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

IMPORTS OF STAPLE ARTICLES AT MOBILE.

COMPARATIVE IMPORTS OF THE FOLLOWING STAPLE ARTICLES INTO THE PORT OF MOBILE FOR SIX YEARS.

Articles.	1855–6.	1854–5.	1853–4.	1852–3.	1851–2.	1850–1.
Bagging....pieces	23,176	23,938	21,063	22,327	17,762	30,402
Bale rope....coils	38,399	31,597	21,562	24,107	16,585	30,926
Bacon.....hhds.	12 626	16,929	17,744	13,227	11,500	16,637
Coffee.....sacks	33,556	23,936	20,678	34,503	28,538	25,236
Corn	43,436	101,225	189,029	92,104	83,380	98,086
Flour.....bbls.	59,073	41,920	62,057	64,444	74,329	95,054
Hay.....bales	13,556	17,858	25,101	22,830	26,852	27,143
Lard .....kegs	16,692	22,083	15,738	22,389	22,481	20,021
Lime.....bbls.	6,790	14,632	11,953	21,252	31,027	23,745
Molasses.....bbls.	17,695	29,330	30,799	19,681	18,195	23,673
Oats.....sacks	88,912	33,939	60,426	48,395	20,995	29,121
Potatoes.....bbls.	19,308	12,099	23,261	21,344	22,014	16,248
Pork.....	19,944	12,446	14,700	15,841	15,589	23,949
Rice.....tierces	1,961	11,421	2,349	1,399	1,491	1,832
Salt .....sacks	234,321	139,901	169,631	123,266	154,351	128,700
Sugar.....hhds.	7,570	7,431	8,398	8,352	6,083	6,634
Whisky.....bbls.	25,808	19,702	24,695	21,754	15,597	23,868

PRICES OF PRODUCE AND MERCHANDISE AT NEW ORLEANS.

The following tabular statements of prices of the leading staple articles of produce and merchandise at New Orleans for several years past is derived from the New Orleans *Price Current*:—

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF MIDDLING TO FAIR COTTON AT NEW ORLEANS ON THE FIRST DAY OF EACH MONTH DURING A PERIOD OF YEARS.

	1855–6.	1854–5.	1853–4.	1852–3.	1851–2.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
September	8⅞ a ...	8¾ a ...	10⅛ a ..	9½ a 11	9 a 10
October	9⅛ a 10⅝	8½ a ...	10¼ a ..	9½ a 11	8 a 9¼
November	8⅛ a 10¼	8¾ a 10⅝	8¾ a ..	9⅝ a 10⅝	7 a 8¼
December	9 a 11½	8¾ a 10⅛	9¼ a ..	8¾ a 10¼	7⅛ a 8⅝
January	8⅛ a 10½	8 a 10⅛	9¼ a ..	8¼ a ..	7⅛ a 8⅛
February	8⅝ a 10¾	8 a 10	9⅛ a ..	8¾ a ..	7⅛ a 8¾
March	9¼ a 11	8 a 10	8⅝ a ..	8¾ a ..	7⅝ a 9
April	9¼ a 11	8⅝ a ...	8¾ a ..	9¼ a ..	7⅝ a 9
May	10⅝ a ...	9⅛ a ...	8⅛ a ..	9¾ a ..	7¾ a 9¼
June	10¼ a ...	10⅝ a ...	7⅝ a ..	10 a ..	9¼ a ..
July	10⅞ a ...	9⅝ a ...	8¼ a ..	9¾ a ..	9¼ a ..
August	10¾ a ...	9¾ a ...	8¼ a ..	10 a ..	9¼ a ..
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
Rec'pts at N. Orleans	1,759,293	1,284,768	1,440,779	1,664,864	1,429,183
Crop	3,520,000	2,847,339	2,930,027	3,220,000	3,015,029

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF SUGAR ON THE LEVEE ON THE FIRST OF EACH MONTH, FOR FIVE YEARS.

	1855–6.	1854–5.	1853–4.	1852–3.	1851–2.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
September	5 a 7¾	2½ a 4¾	3½ a 5¾	3½ a 6½	3¾ a 6½
October	4 a 8	3 a 5½	2¾ a 6	3¾ a 7	3¾ a 6½
November	5½ a 7½	3 a 5½	2½ a 5	2½ a 6½	3 a 6¾
December	4½ a 7½	2¾ a 5	1½ a 4¾	2¾ a 5½	2½ a 6
January	5 a 8	2½ a 4¾	2 a 4¾	2¾ a 5½	2 a 5½
February	5 a 8	2½ a 4½	2 a 4¾	3 a 5½	2 a 5½
March	4½ a 8⅝	3 a 5	2½ a 4¾	3 a 5½	2½ a 5½
April	4 a 8½	2¾ a 5½	1 a 4½	2½ a 5	2½ a 5¾
May	4 a 8½	4 a 6	1 a 4¾	2½ a 5⅝	2½ a 5¾
June	4½ a 9	4 a 6½	1 a 5	2½ a 5	3½ a 6
July	5 a 9½	4 a 6½	1¾ a 5½	2¾ a 5	3½ a 6
August	5½ a 9½	3¾ a 6½	3½ a 3⅝	3½ a 6	3½ a 6½

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF MOLASSES ON THE LEVEE ON THE FIRST OF EACH MONTH, FOR FIVE YEARS.

	1855–6.	1854–5.	1853–4.	1852–3.	1851–2.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
September	28 a 32	8 a 13	13 a 20	16 a 28	25 a 30
October	22 a 30	9 a 13	13 a 20	18 a 28	23 a 30
November	24 a 31	10 a 24	20 a 22	25 a 26	18 a 27
December	27 a 30	12 a 18	12 a 18	23 a 24	23 a 24
January	37 a 40	14 a 16	13 a 18	17 a 22	17 a 20
February	30 a 35	13 a 17	12 a 18	21 a 24	15 a 20
March	33 a 34	15 a 19	12 a 17	18 a 24	20 a 25
April	30 a 35	12 a 20	9 a 15	17 a 24	15 a 26
May	30 a 37	22 a 29	9 a 13	15 a 20	20 a 28
June	35 a 43	20 a 28	8 a 11	14 a 22	23 a 28
July	35 a 48	20 a 28	7 a 11	11 a 20	20 a 28
August	30 a 45	20 a 28	8 a 13	13 a 19	18 a 28

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF FLOUR ON THE FIRST OF EACH MONTH, FOR FIVE YEARS.

	1855–6.	1854–5.	1853–4.	1852–3.	1851–2.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
September	7¼ a 7½	7¾ a 8¼	5½ a 6¼	3⅞ a 4⅛	3¼ a 5
October	7½ a 7⅝	6⅞ a 7	5⅛ a 6⅜	4 a 4⅛	3⅜ a 4⅛
November	8⅛ a 8¼	8 a 8¼	6⅜ a 7	4¼ a 4⅜	3¼ a 4¼
December	8¼ a 9	8¼ a 9	6¼ a 6½	4⅛ a 5	3½ a 4⅜
January	8 a 8¼	8¼ a 9	6 a 6⅛	4¼ a 5¼	3⅜ a 5¼
February	8¼ a 8⅜	9¼ a 9½	7¼ a 7⅜	4¼ a 5	4 a 5¼
March	6⅛ a 7¼	9½ a 9½	7 a 7½	4 a 4⅛	4¼ a 4½
April	7 a 7⅛	9½ a 9¾	6 a 6⅛	3⅞ a 4⅛	3⅛ a 4¼
May	6¼ a 6½	10¼ a 11	6¼ a 7⅛	3⅞ a 4¼	3¼ a 3⅝
June	6½ a 6⅝	9½ a 9⅝	7 a 7½	3⅞ a 4¼	3⅛ a 3⅞
July	6 a 6½	8 a 8½	6¼ a 7	4⅛ a 5	3¼ a 4¼
August	6⅛ a 6⅝	7¼ a 8½	6⅛ a 8½	5¼ a 6¼	3½ a 3⅞

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF MESS AND PRIME PORK ON THE FIRST OF EACH MONTH FOR TWO YEARS.

	1855–6.		1854–5.	
	MESS.	PRIME.	MESS.	PRIME.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
September	20 a 20½	17½ a ..	15 a 15½	13 a 13½
October	20 a 21	17½ a ..	15 a 15½	13 a 13½
November	21 a 22	17½ a ..	14 a 14⅝	12½ a 13
December	19 a 20	18½ a ..	21 a 23	.. a ..
January	15½ a 16	15 a ..	12 a 13½	.. a ..
February	16½ a 17	.. a ..	13½ a 13⅝	12½ a 13
March	15½ a 16	14½ a ..	13⅝ a 14½	12 a 12½
April	15½ a 15⅝	12½ a 13	14⅝ a 15	12⅝ a 13½
May	16 a 16½	13 a 13½	16½ a 16⅝	13½ a 14
June	17½ a ..	14⅝ a 15½	16½ a 16⅝	14½ a ..
July	19 a 19½	16 a ..	18 a ..	15½ a 16
August	20 a 20½	16 a ..	18 a ..	16 a 16½

PRICES OF PRODUCE AND MERCHANDISE AT CINCINNATI.

The following table shows the price of butter at the close of each week during the year :—

September	5	16	January	9	21	May	7	18
	12	17		16	21½		14	18
	19	17		23	21½		21	18
	26	18		30	20		28	14
October	3	18	February	6	20	June	4	15
	10	18		13	20		11	13
	17	18		20	21		18	13
	24	18		27	20		25	12½
	31	22	March	5	20	July	2	12
November	7	21		12	21		9	14
	14	22		19	18		16	14
	21	20		26	17		23	15
	28	28	April	2	18		30	15
December	5	20		9	20	August	6	14½
	12	21		16	20		13	14
	19	20		23	20		20	14
	26	21		30	18		27	14
January	2	22						

The following table shows the price of prime Rio coffee in this market at the close of each week during the year :—

September 5.....	12½	January 9.....	12½	May 7.....	12½
12.....	12½	16.....	12½	14.....	12½
19.....	12½	23.....	12½	21.....	12½
26. ...	12½	30.....	12½	28.....	12½
October 3.....	12½	February 6.....	12¾	June 4.....	12
10.....	12½	13.....	12¾	11.....	12
17.....	12½	20.....	12¾	18.....	12
24.....	12	27.....	12¾	25.....	12
31.....	12½	March 5.....	12¾	July 2.....	12
November 7.....	12½	12.....	13	9.....	12
14.....	12½	19.....	13	16.....	12½
21.....	12	26.....	13	23.....	12½
28.....	12	April 2	13	30.....	12½
December 5.....	12½	9.....	12¾	August 6.....	12½
12.....	12½	16.....	12½	13.....	12½
19.....	12½	23.....	12½	20.....	12
26.....	12½	30.....	12½	27.....	12
January 2.....	12½				

The following table shows the price of Western Reserve cheese in this market at the close of each week during the year :—

September 5.....	8¾	January 9.....	9¾	May 7.....	10
12.....	8¾	16.....	9¾	14.. ...	9½
19.....	8¾	23.....	10	21.....	9½
26.....	9½	30.....	10	28.....	9
October 3	9½	February 6.....	10	June 4.....	8½
10.....	9½	13.....	10	11.....	8½
17.....	9½	20.....	10½	18.....	8½
24.....	9½	27.....	10½	25.....	8½
31.....	9½	March 5.....	10¾	July 2.....	8½
November 7.....	9½	12.....	10½	9.....	8½
14.....	9½	19.....	10½	16.....	8½
21.....	9½	26.....	11	23.....	9
28.....	9½	April 2.....	11½	30.....	9
December 5.....	9¾	9.....	11½	August 6.....	9
12.....	9¾	16.....	11½	13.....	9
19.. ...	9½	23.....	11½	20.....	9½
26.....	9¾	30.....	11½	27.....	9½
January 2.....	10				

COMMERCIAL PROGRRSS OF OSWEGO IN TEN YEARS.

In 1845 the population of Oswego was 5,818, and in 1855 it was 16,000. The value of our foreign imports from Canada in 1845 was $41,313, and in 1855 over $6,000,000. The whole value of our import and export trade with Canada in 1845 was $2,350,309, and in 1855 over $12,000,000. Under the operation of the reciprocity treaty, our trade both ways with Canada has more than doubled in 1855 over the preceding year of 1854. In 1845 the whole foreign and domestic trade of Oswego, imports and exports, did not exceed $8,000,000. In 1846 the total value of our trade was $10,502,964, and in 1847, the year of the European famine, it rose to $18,067,819; in 1855 it amounted to over $40,000,000. The tonnage of vessels enrolled and licensed at this port shows a corresponding increase. Our progress is now more rapid than at any previous period, our trade having received a prodigious impulse from free trade with Canada, the rapid development of her vast resources, and of the commercial advantages of our position, by the completion and vigorous prosecution of important improvements on the other side.

EXPORTS OF BOSTON FOR YEARS ENDING SEPTEMBER 1, 1855 AND 1856.

The Boston *Shipping List* (good authority) furnishes the subjoined statement of the export trade of Boston for the years ending on the 1st of September, 1855 and 1856 :—

	1856.	1855.
Apples, bbls.....	40,142	64,196
Ashes, pot	324	18
Ashes, pearl.....	146	20
Beeswax, pkgs.....	....	63
Butter, tubs & kegs ..	19,325	15,376
Beef to—		
Foreign ports, bbls.	8,602	7,993
Coastwise ports....	2,666	2,122
Bread.....	14,848	16,291
Boots & shoes, cases..	220,886	192,610
Candles, boxes.....	80,136	54,843
Cassia, mats.....	15,586	13,721
Cassia, cases.....	63	450
Cheese to—		
Foreign ports, bxs..	7,243	8,224
Coastwise ports....	1,337	1,542
Foreign ports, casks	10	5
Coastwise ports....	2	....
Cocoa, bags	24	1,069
Coffee to—		
Foreign ports, bags.	17,659	22,844
Coastwise ports....	42,237	72,625
Corn to—		
Foreign ports, bush.	36,670	43,594
Coastwise ports....	6,265	17,533
Corn-meal to—		
Foreign ports, bbls.	37,461	29,355
Coastwise ports....	959	1,767
Cotton to—		
Foreign ports, bales	13,077	2,873
Coastwise ports....	3,992	1,812
Dyewoods—		
Logwood, tons.....	9,851	10,393
Sapan wood.....	354	206
Fustic.....	165	89
Domestics to—		
Foreign ports, pkgs.	40,127	32,844
Fish—		
Dry cod, drums....	11,430	7,510
" boxes	4,373	6,333
" qtls	62,696	48,552
Mackerel, bbls.....	103,786	105,867
Herring, boxes....	31,115	28,076
Flour, wheat, to—		
Foreign ports, bbls.	186,332	101,495
Coastwise ports....	10,021	7,278
Flour, rye, to—		
Foreign ports, bbls.	1,797	3,070
Coastwise ports....	140	20
Glassware, pkgs.....	15,408	11,899
Gunpowder, kegs ...	28,251	35,339
Granite, tons	7,679	9,290
" pieces.....	24,402	5,234
Gunny cloth, etc., bales	54,671	44,998
Hams, hhds.....	392	506
Hams, tierces	3,759	5,133
" bbls.....	573	753
" No.....	6,266	6,485
Hay, tons..... ...	250	295
" bundles.....	3,681	2,757
Hemp, bales.....	22,681	46,097
" tons.....	63	129
Hides to—		
Foreign ports, bales	99	785
Coastwise ports....	2,037	1,934
Foreign ports, No..	27	700
Coastwise ports....	45,943	82,854
Hops to—		
Foreign ports, bales	1,602	2,933
Coastwise ports....	2,026	607
Ice to—		
Foreign ports, tons.	44,140	42,319
Coastwise ports....	73,636	61,386
Iron, tons	9,547	10,650
" bars & bundles..	136,791	128,546
Indigo, cases.....	991	421
" ceroons.....	26	28
Lard to—		
Foreign ports, kegs.	10,748	12,743
Coastwise ports....	1,819	1,785
Foreign ports, bbls.	4,462	3,028
Coastwise ports....	2,325	2,820
Lac dye, cases.....	402	380
Linseed, bags.....	201,790	225,348
Lead, white, kegs ...	17,002	29,646
Lead to—		
Foreign ports, pigs.	10,866	11,600
Coastwise ports....	87	260
Lime, casks	5,555	4,173
Lumber—		
Sh'ks, box, & hhd., M.	316	286
Boards & plank....	11,479	13,099
Staves.....	286	307
Hoops.....	2,571	2,133
Shingles.....	2,700	4,693
Molasses to—		
Foreign ports, hhds.	986	1,640
Coastwise ports....	3,762	3,819
Foreign ports, trcs..	191	279
Coastwise ports....	87	98
Foreign ports, bbls.	177	379
Coastwise ports....	146	684
Nails, casks	101,534	88,508
Naval Stores—		
Rosin, bbls.....	34,702	34,919
Spirits turpentine .	12,625	6,141
Tar	7,901	5,971
Pitch.....	9,570	6,733
Turpentine.....	57	10
Pepper, bags		

	1856.	1855.
Plaster, tons	7,551	6,899
Pork to—		
Foreign ports, bbls.	19,887	20,235
Coastwise ports	11,069	10,504
Oil	8,276	9,313
Rice to—		
Foreign ports, trcs.	1,437	630
Coastwise ports	17	61
Foreign ports, hhds.	10,872	7,191
Coastwise ports	1,903	1,515
Rum to—		
Foreign ports, hhds.	2,426	2,657
Coastwise ports	95	247
Foreign ports, bbls.	26,775	36,882
Coastwise ports	5,027	5,869
Raisins, boxes	30,650	35,581
" casks	1,234	1,219
Salt, sacks	41,067	75,242
" hhds	30,410	38,932
Shellac, cases	2,575	3,219
Sumac, bags	3,711	489
Saltpeter to—		
Foreign ports, bags.	8,524	6,971
Coastwise ports	38,407	67,857
Sarsaparilla, bales	269	240
Sugar to—		
Foreign ports, bxs.	4,713	8,372
Coastwise ports	2,625	3,250
Foreign ports, bags.	252	447
Coastwise ports	53,093	38,308
Foreign ports, bbls.	15,253	23,616
Coastwise ports	20,651	27,890
Foreign ports, hhds.	615	218
Coastwise ports	2,964	6,390
Soap, boxes	186,171	159,897
Tin, slabs	621	3,521
Tin plate, boxes	3,677	2,669
Tobacco, leaf, hhds	1,243	1,019
" bales & cases	5,161	4,779
" kegs & boxes	15,308	18,374
Tallow, bbls	2,619	1,830
Tea, chests	18,558	18,695
Wheat, bush	21,463	5,284
Whisky, bbls	820	423
Wool to—		
Foreign ports, bales	....	741
Coastwise ports	478	662

COTTON TRADE OF MOBILE, ALABAMA.

The table below, derived from the Mobile *Journal of Commerce Letter Sheet Price Current*, gives a comparative view of the exports of cotton from the port of Mobile for the last four years, commencing 1st of September in each year:—

Ports.	1855–6.	1854–5.	1853–4.	1852–3.
Great Britain	351,690	215,248	231,230	236,620
France	96,262	111,090	76,827	88,263
Other foreign ports	37,083	13,973	29,094	20,258
Total foreign	485,035	340,311	337,151	345,141
Total United States	196,286	112,792	178,505	195,237
Grand total	681,321	453,103	515,656	540,378

EXPORTS OF COTTON TO FOREIGN PORTS, WITH THE WEIGHT AND VALUE ATTACHED FOR THE YEAR ENDING AUGUST 31ST, 1856.

	Bales.	Pounds.	Value.
Great Britain, in American vessels	163,639	83,180,336	$7,222,334 00
Great Britain, in British vessels	188,051	96,292,252	8,403,352 67
Total to Great Britain	351,690	179,472,588	$15,625,686 67
France, in American vessels	96,262	50,025,332	4,293,540 00
Belgium	9,901	5,142,812	431,776 00
Sardinia	540	279,028	22,875 00
Sweden	7,381	3,789,952	322,087 00
Hamburg	2,671	1,372,026	117,385 00
Bremen	8,108	4,219,050	367,240 00
Holland	955	498,622	52,326 00
Spain	5,017	2,599,674	268,134 00
Austria	2,510	1,331,016	113,612 00
Total to other foreign ports	37,083	19,232,180	$1,695,435 00
Total foreign	485,035	248,730,100	21,614,661 67

EXPORT AND CONSUMPTION OF COTTON.

We abstract from the annual statement of the *Commercial and Shipping List*, a table, showing the export of cotton to foreign ports, and another, showing the quantity of cotton consumed by and in the hands of manufacturers, north of Virginia, for the last thirty years:—

EXPORT TO FOREIGN PORTS, FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1855, TO AUGUST 31, 1856.

From—	To Great Britain.	To France.	To North of Europe.	Other for'gn ports.	Total.
New Orleans.... ...bales	986,622	244,814	162,675	178,812	1,572,923
Mobile.....	351,690	96,262	29,016	8,067	485,035
Texas.....	19,661	5,166	9,175	.....	34,002
Florida.....	30,899	2,989	2,020	.....	35,858
Savannah.....	162,748	16,857	2,907	2 808	185,320
Charleston	180,532	87,396	49,727	53,456	371,111
North Carolina	96	.....	.....	.....	96
Virginia.....	70	.....	.....	.....	70
Baltimore	424	48	.....	.....	472
Philadelphia	178	.....	.....	.....	178
New York.....	181,045	27,155	42,893	5,371	256,464
Boston	7,421	.....	5,592	64	13,077
Grand total	1,921,386	480,687	304,005	248,578	2,954,606
Total last year.....	1,549,716	409,931	135,200	149,362	2,244,209
Increase.....	371,670	70,706	168,805	99,216	710,397

QUANTITY CONSUMED BY AND IN THE HANDS OF MANUFACTURERS, NORTH OF VIRGINIA.

	Bales.		Bales.
1855-56.....	652,739	1840-41.....	297,288
1854-55.....	593,584	1839-40.....	295,193
1853-54.....	610,571	1838-39.....	276,018
1852-53.....	671,009	1837-38.....	246,063
1851-52.....	603,029	1836-37.....	222,540
1850-51.....	404,108	1835-36.....	236,733
1849-50....	487,769	1834 35.....	216,888
1848-49.....	518,039	1833-34.....	196,413
1847-48.....	531,772	1832-33.....	194,412
1846-47.....	427,967	1831-32.....	173,800
1845-46.....	422,597	1830-31.....	182,142
1844-45.....	389,006	1829-30.....	126,512
1843-44.....	346,744	1828-29.....	104,853
1842-43.....	325,129	1827-28.....	120,593
1841-42.....	267,850	1826-27.....	103,483

ENTRIES AND CLEARANCES OF VESSELS AT MOBILE.

TABLE OF ENTRIES AND CLEARANCES OF VESSELS AT THE PORT OF MOBILE, (EXCLUSIVE OF STEAMERS AND OTHER CRAFT NAVIGATING THE RIVERS AND BAY,) FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1856.

	ARRIVALS.			CLEARANCES.		
Character.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crew.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crew.
American.....	130	79,879	2,153	182	122,403	3,164
Foreign.....	101	92,301	2,650	101	92,301	2,628
Coastwise.....	703	301,498	11,544	341	98,264	3,193
Total.....	934	473,678	16,347	624	312,973	8,985

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

THE BALTIMORE BOARD OF TRADE.

The seventh annual meeting of the Baltimore Board of Trade was held on the 6th October, 1856. The report of the president, John C. Brune, Esq., which we give below, contains some valuable suggestions, and one in particular, of general interest. We refer to the recommendation in regard to the establishment of a bureau at the seat of government, especially dedicated to the interests of commerce. We entirely concur in the importance of the measure proposed, and trust the several Chambers of Commerce, Boards of Trade, and our merchants generally, will press the subject upon the attention of Congress.

In conformity with usage, the members of the Association are waited upon with a record of proceedings during the past year.

It is, in the first place, our grateful duty to acknowledge with sincere thankfulness the exemption of this city from pestilence, so much apprehended, and, under Providence, attribute this escape to the energetic precautions taken by the Commissioners of Health; far from the appearance of any epidemic, Baltimore has been, even more than usual, remarkable for its exemption from disease.

Various plans and theories have been considered and proposed, in our maritime ports, for the supply of a more reliable and higher order of seamen for the mercantile marine. The subject has engaged the attention of many liberal-minded as well as philanthropic individuals and associations; but heretofore little, practically has been done. It has been the generally accepted idea, that when a lad was unfit for anything else he should "be sent to sea," and yet there is not a class of men engaged in any pursuit to whom more valuable interest in property, more wholesale trust of life is committed, than to those thus cast upon the waters, without education, generally, either moral or professional.

It is not, therefore, a matter of surprise that in this country, where there are so many associations, more remunerative as well as less hazardous, but few native sailors, comparatively, are to be found, except on whale ships. Incalculable has been the loss of merchandise, and innumerable the sacrifice of human lives, in consequence of the absence of early preparation and education for the hardy calling of a sailor.

A small beginning has been made in Baltimore, in what it is hoped will prove to be a useful and much more extended scheme of nautical education. Your Board and some firms have subscribed to a fund sufficient for the purchase of the United States sloop-of-war Ontario; and the School Commissioners of the city, in a liberal spirit, recognized the justice of the claim for the usual instruction offered by the public school laws. It will be necessary for the peculiar objects of the "Floating School" that a nautical instructor should be employed, and it is hoped that our commercial community will foster in a generous manner an undertaking from which so much good may arise. It is thought 300 to 350 boys may be educated on board the Ontario, and from this nucleus be adopted a general system of education for sailors which will reflect credit on those who have encouraged it, and hereafter elevate the character and reputation of American seamen.

The Board of Directors have at length the opportunity of congratulating the members of the Association on the repeal of the Stamp Tax. It is to be regretted that laws controlling the usance of money cannot, under the present State constitution, be likewise abolished.

Last winter our harbor was, for a length of time, partially closed by ice, owing to the unusual severity of the weather, such obstructions not having occurred for many previous years.

Efforts were made to have ice-boats constructed, competent to keep open the navigation even during another such season, but the diversity of opinion as to the

manner and means to be adopted, have frustrated any action on this important subject, which involves the poor man's fireside comforts even more directly than the shipowner's interests.

It has been suggested, that in a country possessed of a commerce so large as that of the United States, a bureau especially dedicated to its supervision and interests should be established, separate and distinct from the financial or Treasury Department. This Board would respectfully call the attention of the various Chambers of Commerce to the consideration of this subject, and, if approved, the measures to be taken for its establishment. Agriculture has been cared for especially, in the Department of the Interior. Within a few years, in Great Britain there is a governmental Board of Trade, and in France an especial Ministry of Commerce. If we are to judge by our commercial tonnage, which is now larger than that of any other nation, (having increased from about 1,200,000 tons in 1830, to 5,200,000 tons in 1855,) it may fairly be allowed, that we also require at Washington a Department prepared to devote an exclusive attention to *mercantile considerations and interests.*

It is a subject of congratulation that Congress recently appropriated the further sum of one hundred thousand dollars to continue the improvement of the channel of the Patapsco; the government has now one dredge in operation, under the direction of Major Brewerton, U. S. A., and the commissioners appointed by the city, two dredges, while a third is being constructed and will shortly be put in the service. With such augmentation of force as may now be relied upon, it is to be expected that ere long there will be obtained a sufficient depth of water for all practical mercantile purposes.

The thanks of the Board are due, and hereby tendered, to our Senators and Representatives in Congress for their exertions in securing the appropriation above referred to.

Our steam communications with Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, have been rapily increased, and will no doubt augement in proportion to the demands of trade; to the port of Charleston, also, there is a line of steamers, reliable and economical; while to that of Savannah, a company is being organized to run two steamers, the City of Savannah and the City of Norfolk. Already have these vessels commenced their trips. It is to be expected that before long we will have an extension of southern steam navigation to Mobile and New Orleans.

The Board offers respectfully this Report to the members, asking reference to the Treasurer's statement, appended. By order,

JOHN C. BRUNE, President.

The following gentlemen were elected officers for the ensuing year:—

President—John C. Brune. *Vice Presidents*—Enoch Pratt, Thos. C. Jenkins, Wm. McKim, A. Schumacher. *Treasurer*—E. B. Dallam. *Secretary*—George U. Porter.

Directors—Wm. P. Lemmon, J. Hall Pleasants, Alexander Rieman, William Bose, Thos. W. Levering, Hugh A. Cooper, E. S. Courtney, Robert Leslie, Robert R. Kirkland, Lawrence Thompson, John Williams, George N. Eaton, W. T. Young, H. L. Whitridge, Samuel Fenby, Aaron Fenton, H. G. Rice, Wm. E. Hooper, George H. Kyle, Wm. H. Keighler, C. D. Slingluff, William Devries, Henry R. Wilson, C. D. Hinks.

OF EXPORT DUTIES UPON IRON IN SWEDEN.

The Department of State has received from the United States consul at Stockholm some interesting information in relation to a royal decree which took effect on the 1st of January, 1856, and which affects import and export duties upon iron. The decree is in conformity with the express wishes of the late Diet:—

The most important point in it (says our correspondent) appears to be the abolition of export duty upon bar-iron. The former duty was four Swedish shillings (about 3¼ cents) per ship-pound of staple-stads weight, of which seven-and-a-half are equal to one ton. In addition to this duty, four more shillings were charged

per ship-pound for town dues. These are also discontinued; town dues being only payable upon articles which pay duty. Thus, the annual export of Swedish bar-iron being about 600,000 ship-pounds, (80,000 tons,) the revenue to the State and towns is diminished by about 100,000 rix dollars banco, ($40,000,) and the annual export to the United States being about 100,000 ship-pounds, (13,333 tons,) the Swedish tax hitherto levied upon this quantity (namely, $6,666,) will of course be no longer payable. It is stated that seven-eighths of the iron business between the United States and Sweden is transacted by Messrs. Naylor & Co., of New York and Boston.

All trade with foreign countries in pig and ballast iron (the latter being pig-iron used as ballast for shipping) had been, previous to this decree, forbidden, but now this kind of iron may be exported and imported against a duty of one rix dollar banco (40 cents) per ship-pound. With regard to its *exportation*, it may be said said that the average value of Swedish pig-iron in the interior of Sweden is about $4 per ship-pound, ($30 per ton.) The cost of transportation to the coast would be at least 80 cents per ship-pound; and when it is considered duly that this expense, together with that of town dues, export duty, sea freight, and the like, must be paid upon a material which yields only 70 per cent of bar-iron, the Swedish manufacturer of bar-iron will be found to have advantages equal to about $9 per ton over any foreign forge-owner who may manufacture bar-iron from Swedish material. Among these advantages, moreover, should be reckoned the superiority of the charcoal used at the Swedish forges, by which not only a better iron is produced, but a less waste of material is occasioned in reducing pig to bar iron than is the case when the process is performed with mineral coal. It is, therefore, probable that no great quantity of pig-iron will be exported from Sweden, and, as the demand for iron of this quality throughout the world is limited to about the quantity now produced, an increase of quantity would reduce its market value almost to that of English iron. There seems, also, for reasons analogous to those just cited, to be no probability that any importation of foreign pig-iron into Sweden will be the result of the new law.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS AT CLEVELAND.

We are indebted to the editor of the *Commercial Gazette* of Cleveland, Ohio, for the regulations of trade and commerce of the Cleveland market, as established by law and custom:—

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

			Law.	Custom.
Ale	gallons	per barrel	..	..
Apples, dry	pounds	per bushel	..	22
Barley	pounds	per bushel	48	48
Beans	pounds	per bushel	..	60
Beef	pounds	per barrel	200	200
Beef	pounds	per tierce	..	303
Coal	pounds	per ton	..	2,000
Corn	pounds	per bushel	56	56
Corn, unshelled	pounds	per bushel	..	70
Clover-seed	pounds	per bushel	60	60
Fish	pounds	per barrel	200	200
Flour	pounds	per barrel	196	196
Flax-seed	pounds	per bushel	56	56
Grindstones	pounds	per ton	..	2,000
Oats	pounds	per bushel	..	32
Onions	pounds	per bushel	..	43
Peaches, dry	pounds	per bushel	..	32
Pig-iron	pounds	per ton	..	2,240
Pork	pounds	per barrel	200	200
Potatoes	pounds	per bushel	..	56
Rye	pounds	per bushel	56	56
Salt, fine	pounds	per barrel	..	280
Salt, coarse	pounds	per barrel	..	320

Salt, sacks	pounds	per sack	14
Timothy-seed	pounds	per bushel	42
Wheat	pounds	per bushel	60 60
Water-lime	pounds	per barrel	300

TARES.

BUTTER. In all cases the actual tare.
CHEESE. In all cases the actual tare.
LARD. In all cases the actual tare.
RICE. In tierces, 10 per cent.
SUGARS. New Orleans, 10 per cent.
SUGARS. Island, 12 per cent.
TOBACCO. Six twist, 20 pounds per keg.

CLASSIFICATION.

In describing the different grades of staple articles and commodities sold in this market, we have adopted the following classification. We also give the locality where a given article is manufactured, raised, prepared, or packed, where the locality is any indication of the quality of such article. Articles universally classed alike, are not included in the list:—

ALE. Present use, stock, and porter.
APPLES (dry.) Ordinary, common, fair, good, prime, and extra.
BEEF. Prime and mess.
BEESWAX. Yellow and white.
BROOMS. Common, fancy, and extra.
BUTTER. Same as apples.
CHEESE. Same as apples.
CORN-MEAL. Undried and dried.
FLOUR. Fine, No. 2 superfine, superfine, extra, and favorite.
LARD. Same as apples.
PEACHES (dry.) Same as apples.
PORK. Prime, No. 2 mess, and mess.
RYE-FLOUR. Superfine and extra.
WHEAT. Mediterranean, red, mixed, and white.
WOOL. Common, ¼ blood, ½ blood, ¾ blood, full blood, and fancy.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

DRIFT WOOD—THE CURRENTS.

A correspondent of the *Merchants' Magazine* furnishes us with the following translation from the last number of the *Comptes Rendus*, (xliii., 547.) The small number (fifty) of floats sent adrift from the Hortense by Prince Napoleon, will have but small chance of being picked up anywhere:—

Letter from Prince Napoleon to the Perpetual Secretary of the Institute of France, dated, on board the Reine-Hortense, the 20th of August, 1856, in the Roads of Lerwick, (Shetland Isles.)

MR. SECRETARY:—In the bays of the north there are constantly found pieces of drift wood, which, after having been floated about by the impulsion of currents, are finally stranded on these coasts. These woods are principally deal or fir, but exhibit no certain evidence of the place of their origin.

I have been desirous that my voyage in the northern seas should contribute to a better knowledge of these currents, which, though they have already been studied in their main directions, are but little known in their ramifications, and I have had thrown from the Reine-Hortense, in her different passages, a great number of floats, (fifty,) bearing the indication of the point of departure. These floats con-

sist of a cylinder of fir, (sapin,) ten inches in diameter by ten inches in length, (0m. 25.) The cylinder is pierced in the direction of its axis, and in the orifice is inserted a small sealed vial, containing a billet of the following purport:—

Voyage of his I. H. the Prince Napoleon, on board the corvette Reine-Hortense, commanded by M. de la Ronciere, capitaine de vaisseau.
Billet thrown into the sea * * * 1856.
Latitude * *
Longitude, from the meridian of Paris, * *
The person who may find this billet is requested to send it to the nearest French consul.

The inscription is translated into English, Latin, and Russian.

The vials are fixed into the woods by means of waxed cloths, which envelop them entirely, and on the top is nailed a piece of lead, bearing the name of Reine-Hortense and the date of the immersion. Lastly, the better to attract attention to these floats, and to prevent their being confounded with other floating timber, the circumference of the cylinder has been pierced with two holes at right-angles to each other, into which are driven strong treenails, (chevilles,) projecting about eight inches, (two decimeters,) and forming a cross.

I shall be indebted to you if you will have the goodness to write to the different scientific bodies in Europe and America, to bring this fact to their notice, request that publicity be given to it, and to pray them to inform the Academy of Sciences of France of the localities where any of these floats may have been taken up.

Accept, M. Perpetual Secretary, the expression of my high consideration.

NAPOLEON.

LIGHTHOUSE AT EDGEMOGGIN REACH, MAINE.

A lighthouse will be erected during the present season on Fly's or Green Island, near the eastern end of Edgemoggin Reach. It is intended as a guide to vessels running to and from Ellsworth, Blue Hill, and Mt. Desert, and on the Lighthouse List of 1856 will come next after No. 11, (Bear Island Lighthouse.) The tower will be of brick, painted white, and will be attached to the keeper's house, which will be of wood, and painted brown. The lantern will be painted black. The illuminating apparatus will be a fifth order Fresnel lens, showing a fixed white light. The height of the centre of the light above the level of the sea will be 25 feet, and the light will be visible in good weather, from the deck of an ordinay vessel, about seven nautical miles. The light will be lighted for the first time on the night of February 2, 1857, and will be kept burning during every night thereafter. By order of the Lighthouse Board,

W. B. FRANKLIN, Lighthouse Inspector, 1st Dist.

PORTLAND, Me., Sept. 12, 1856.

PRINCES CHANNEL, ENTRANCE TO THE THAMES.

Notice is hereby given, that, pursuant to the intention expressed in the advertisement from this house, dated 5th June last, a light vessel, having the words "Princes Channel" painted on her sides, has been moored on the north side of this Channel, in 3½ fathoms low water, spring tides, with the following marks and compass bearings, viz:—

Monkton Beacon, nearly midway between St. Nicholas Preventive Stations, but rather nearer to the western one, S. ¼ W. westerly; Minster West Mill, its apparent length to the eastward of Powell's Belfry, S. ¼ E.; Shingles Beacon, E. by S. ¼ S.; Tongue Light Vessel, S. E. by E. ¼ E.; N. E. Tongue Buoy, S. E. ¼ E.; North Pan Sand Buoy, W.; Girdler Light Vessel, W. by N. ¼ N.

A *red* revolving light, showing a flash at intervals of 20 seconds, will be exhibited from this vessel every night, from sunset to sunrise, on and after the 1st of October.

CAUTION.—Mariners are to observe that no vessel is to be navigated to the northward of this light-vessel. By order,

P. H. BERTHON, Secretary.

TRINITY-HOUSE, LONDON, Sept. 27, 1856.

BUOYS IN BOSTON BAY AND HARBOR.

A black nun buoy of the third class, numbered 9, has been placed on the north end of Nix's Mate, Boston Harbor, in 15 feet water at low tide. The following magnetic bearings are given:—Narrows Light, S. E. ¼ E.; Long Island Head Light, W. ¼ S.; Deer Island Beacon, N. W. ¼ N.

A red nun buoy of the third class, numbered 10, has been placed on Seventy-four Bar, Narrows, Boston Harbor, in 15 feet at low tide, about 20 fathoms west of the old wreck, which has but 9 feet of water on it at low tide. The following magnetic bearings are given:—Nix's Mate Beacon, W. ¼ N.; Nix's Mate Buoy, N. W. by W. ¼ W.; Deer Island Point Beacon, N. W.

A black spar buoy, numbered 1, has been placed off High Pine Ledge, Boston Bay, in 15 feet of water. The rock is dry at low spring tides. The following magnetic bearings are given:—Gurnet Lights, S. ¼ W.; Captain's Hill, W. ¼ S.; Brant Point, N. by W.

Bartlett's Rock Buoy has been changed from No. 1 to No. 3.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

C. H. B. CALDWELL, Lighthouse Inspector, 2d district.

BOSTON, September 10, 1856.

BELL BUOY ON DEEP HOLE ROCK, OFF COTUIT VINEYARD SOUND, MASS.

The Spar Buoy, (red and black horizontal stripes,) has been removed from this station, and in its stead a can buoy of the second class, (red and black horizontal stripes,) with a bell weighing 150 pounds, secured on top in an iron frame, surmounted by a hoop-iron day-mark, has been placed near this rock. The bell is elevated four and-a-half feet above the water; it is tolled by the action of the waves, wind, and tide, and can be heard in ordinary weather about half a mile. The day-mark is 1 foot 4 inches in diameter, and is elevated 7 feet above the water.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

C. H. B. CALDWELL, Lighthouse Inspector, 2d Dist.

BOSTON, September 9, 1856.

LIGHTHOUSE AT ABSECUM, NEW JERSEY.

Notice is hereby given that a new tower and keeper's dwelling, at Absecum, N. J., are now nearly completed, and that on or about the 15th day of January, 1857, a fixed white light of the first order will be exhibited therefrom. The tower is of brick, unpainted, and will be surmounted by an iron lantern, painted black. The focal plane will have an elevation of 167 feet above mean tide, and the light should be seen, under favorable circumstances, from the deck of an ordinary sailing vessel, at a distance of about 20 nautical miles. The approximate position of this light, as deduced from the Coast Survey Charts, is—latitude 39° 42′ N., longitude 74° 25′ W. from Greenwich. Due public notice will be given of the precise date when the light will be first exhibited.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

W. F. RAYNOLDS, First Lieutenant Corps Topographical Engineers.

PHILADELPHIA, September 30, 1856.

CAPE RACE LIGHT, NEWFOUNDLAND.

The Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade give notice, that the Lighthouse recently erected upon Cape Race, Newfoundland, will be lighted, and will continue to exhibit a fixed white light, from sunset to sunrise, on and after the 15th of December, 1856. The light will be visible to seaward from N. E. by E. round by the S. E. and South to West. The light is elevated 180 feet above mean water level of the sea, and may be seen in clear weather 17 miles from a ship's deck. The tower is striped red and white, vertically. It stands close to the old beacon, (white,) which has been cut down. The lighthouse is in lat. 46° 39′ 12″ N., lon. 53° 2′ 38″ W. All bearings are magnetic. Variation 24° W.

N. B. A toll will be levied upon all vessels benefiting by this light.

BOARD OF TRADE, September, 1856.

LIGHTHOUSE ON CAPE HANCOCK,

MOUTH OF COLUMBIA RIVER, WASHINGTON TERRITORY.

A fixed white light, 1st order of Fresnel, illuminating the entire horizon. The tower is whitewashed, and placed on the pitch of the cape, about 190 feet above the sea. The light is elevated about 230 feet above the sea level, and will be seen, in a favorable state of the atmosphere, from a height of 15 feet above the water, 22 nautical or 25 statute miles.

The latitude and longitude and magnetic variation of the light, as given by the Coast Survey, are: lat. 46° 16′ 35″ N.; lon. 124° 2′ W.; magnetic variation, July, 1851, 20° 45′ E.

The light will be exhibited for the first time on the night of the 15th of October, 1856, and thereafter every night from sunset to sunrise, until further notice.

A Fog Bell of 1,600 pounds, has also been placed on the Bluff in advance of the Light Tower, which will be sounded during foggy or other thick weather, night and day, from the same date. The distinctive mode of striking the bell will be published hereafter. The machinery is in a frame building, on a level with the ground, with the front open to receive the bell, and is also whitewashed.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

HARTMAN BACHE, Maj. Top. Engs. Br. Maj.

Office 12th Lighthouse District, San Francisco, Sept. 15, 1856.

LIGHTS OF THE DARDANELLES AT CAPE HELLAS AND GALLIPOLI.

MEDITERRANEAN.

The following official information has been received at this office, and is published for the benefit of mariners:—A telegraphic dispatch, dated yesterday, has been received from Capt. Spratt, R. N., C. B., commanding H. M. surveying vessel Medina, at Constantinople, stating that by order of Rear-Admiral Lord Lyons, G. C. B., &c., the following lights are permanently established in operation in the Dardanelles, viz.:—

1. A revolving light of the natural color, eclipsed once every minute, on Cape Hellas, forming the northern point of entrance from the Archipelago.

2. A revolving light of the natural color, eclipsed twice every minute, or once every half minute, on the west point of Gallipoli, in lieu of that on the east point of that cape.

Such further particulars, as soon as they are received, will be given hereafter concerning these lights, as may appear necessary for the information of mariners.

By command of their lordships,

JOHN WASHINGTON, Hydrographer.

Hydrographic Office, Admiralty,
London, September 4, 1856.

BEAVER-TAIL LIGHTHOUSE, ENTRANCE TO NEWPORT HARBOR, R. I.

A new lighthouse tower and keeper's dwelling have been constructed, to take the place of the old tower and house at Beaver-Tail, on the south end of Conanicut Island. The tower is of granite, (natural color,) and the house of brick, whitewashed, of two full stories in height, and joined to the tower by a one-story connecting room. The new tower is 10 feet square, 49 feet from base to center of light, and is located 100 feet to the north of the old tower. Its base is 33 feet above mean low water, making the light 82 feet above low tide level. In ordinary weather the light should be seen from the deck of a vessel, 10 feet above the water, at a distance of 14 nautical miles. The new illuminating apparatus will be of the third order of Fresnel, showing a fixed white light around the entire horizon. It will be exhibited on and after October 20, 1856, when the old light will be discontinued, and the old tower will be demolished.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

E. B. HUNT, Lieutenant Corps of Engineers.

Newport, R. I., September 20, 1856.

FOG BELL AT POINT BONITA, NORTH HEAD, SAN FRANCISCO BAY.

Notice is hereby given that a fog bell of 1,500 pounds has been placed on the bluff just in front of the lighthouse tower, at Point Bonita, California. The bell, with the machinery, is in a frame building, open in front on a level with the ground, and will be struck during foggy and thick weather, six blows at intervals of 16 seconds each, followed by a pause of 44 seconds. The bell is elevated 270 feet above the sea. The firing of the fog gun will be continued as usual until further notice. By order of the Lighthouse Board,

HARTMAN BACHE, Maj. Topogl. Engs. Br. Maj.

OFFICE 12TH LIGHTHOUSE DISTRICT, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., August 6, 1856.

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

OF FIRE INSURANCE COMPANIES IN NEW YORK.

The remarks on the character and conduct of fire insurance companies of New York, from the commercial editor of the *Independent*, a reliable and ably conducted religious journal, are well worth considering:—

The subject of insurance against risks of fire, and of the proper character of those institutions which profess to offer us the means and the security to assure ourselves against loss in this respect, is of the first importance to a trading community. It is a duty not only to ourselves and families, but to our creditors, to secure ourselves from losses by fire, by resorting to the best institutions that exist for such insurance. No prudent, no honest trader can do less. Property should be fully insured; and no excuses of non-payment for debt, on the ground of losses by fire, can be allowed to pass current as *honest* ones. Negligence of such a serious kind is disgraceful to any trader.

Were all persons to insure, the expenses of insurance might be made to come very small, as the average percentage of losses from fire would be secured by a proportionately smaller premium.

It is now many years since a very extensive fire occurred in New York; but the last one is still so fresh in our memories that the community have passively acquiesced in paying the very heavy premiums that are charged by the numerous fire insurance companies that have arisen since the last conflagration. These companies seem to have acted on the belief that a fire which should consume one-half or one-quarter of the city will occur every ten years or less; and consequently have charged premiums in proportion to cover such risks—yet, strange to say, companies so doing, instead of saving their annual heavy accumulations, in case of such a disaster, have dissipated them—wasted them by dividing them among their stockholders; and should such a fire occur, all or nearly all the present fire insurance companies would fail when most wanted. If such heavy premiums are to be charged against such a possible occurrence, accumulations should continue to form a fund sufficient for such a contingency, to which the capitals of few companies are sufficient guaranty, in comparison to the extent of the risks they take.

The fire insurance companies of this city are mostly got up on false principles. Most of them are mere jobbing concerns. Many of them are instituted merely to provide for friends who have failed in business, and who therefore are thought to be peculiarly fit to manage an insurance company; and friends are called upon to subscribe to the stock, and who do so, caring at the time very little whether they get back their subscriptions or not, as they only wish to get rid of a pressing call on their friendship, which they cannot refuse. Many institutions are got up—we could mention several—merely to let out buildings which have been built on speculation and which did not let easily at rates *desired*. Others have been got up by parties who wanted the several offices of president, vice-president, and secretary, at good salaries—and others have been got up on even less satisfactory principles.

This is all wrong. Fire insurance would be best conducted on the plan of a mutual insurance company; but waiving just now the consideration of this, the plan of allowing the insured to share in the profits of the company along with the stockholders, is the only just one where heavy premiums are charged. A company should be formed on the principle of only covering the risks incurred, and a certain percentage of profits on stock, according to the average rate generally obtainable.

The existing companies are also commonly objectionable, from the heavy expenses they incur—generally about 30 per cent of their earnings, as we observe from the statements they put forth. One-third of the earnings swallowed up by extravagant expenditure, and the remaining two-thirds yielding annual dividends of 20, 30, or 40 per cent. This is astonishing, and must give, we should think, great encouragement to the formation of a company established on better principles and more moderate pretensions of profit. It would not be so objectionable if they retained their gains as a guaranty fund; but wasted and dissipated annually, as these gains are, affording no security to the insured, it seems highly desirable that companies formed on better principles should be instituted. If the returns are so large, the insured should share in them, and the companies that do this, will attract, as they deserve to do, the largest and best business.

Many houses—private houses, well built and favorably situated—first-class stores that are nearly or altogether fire-proof, contribute largely to the insurance fund, and far beyond the risks they run. They are made to pay beyond their own need, for the benefit of others; but if the insured share in the profits, no objection could be taken.

We are glad to observe that one fire insurance company has taken the initiation in this reform. The Continental Fire Insurance Company has recently (July 1,) resolved that it will thenceforward give the holders of its policies the right to participate in the profits of the business of the company. The stockholders, after receiving the annual sum of 7 per cent for interest on their stock, concede three-fourths of the then net profits to policy holders, for which scrip, bearing interest at 6 per cent per annum, and payable from time to time, as shall be found expedient by the directors, the principle being adopted of letting the fund represented by such scrip to accumulate to $500,000—thus doubling the capital of the company, which is $500,000, and only dividing the surplus in payment of the principal of the scrip. Here is a double security to the insured for the payment of losses, the capital being doubled—a security to the stockholders, where stock cannot be touched while a scrip fund exists, and a source of advantage to the insured, who will receive back a portion of their premiums if they incur no losses, and a powerful inducement to persons of all classes to insure. This is a sound principle to act on, and the institution adopting it is worthy of the most extensive patronage.

SUCCESSFUL INSURANCE COMPANIES IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The Lynn Mechanics' Insurance Company (fire and marine) declared in October, 1856, a dividend of 10 per cent, being the eleventh semi-annual one in succession of the same amount, on which the Lynn *Reporter* remarks:—"We know of no insurance company that has been favored with such large dividends." Although this shows very handsome and long-continued profits, we find by reference to "*Martin's Twenty-one Years in the Stock Market*," that Boston can beat it in several instances. The Firemen's Insurance Company of that city paid 8 per cent in January, 1849, and since has paid 10 per cent regularly every six months up to this year, when two dividends of 12 per cent were declared, making, for eight years, (or *sixteen* successive dividends,) a total of 162 per cent, averaging over 20 per cent annually.

The Merchants' Insurance Company paid in *fourteen* successive dividends, from April, 1847, to October, 1853, inclusive, a total of 166 per cent, averaging 23 5-7

per cent annually, and has averaged 20 3-5 for the past ten years, or more than 10 per cent semi-annually for *twenty* successive dividends. We should think this company *the* most successful one for a long series of years, having paid 789 per cent in dividends during the forty years of its existence, or an average of over 19 7-10 per cent per annum through all that long period.

The Manufacturers' Insurance Company from April, 1850, to October, 1854, inclusive, paid ten semi-annual dividends of from 10 to 15 per cent, averaging 12½ per cent, and has divided 152½ per cent in the past seven years, or an average of 21 4-5 per annum. Some others have done exceedingly well, though not quite up to the above-mentioned. The American paid *seven* successive 10 per cent semi-annual dividends from April, 1850, and has averaged 17½ per cent for the past seven years. The National Insurance Company has averaged 17 per cent for the past eight years. The Neptune Insurance Company divided 142 per cent in *five* years, 1848 to 1852, inclusive, 50 per cent of which was in stock, but worth a *premium* of 40 per cent at the time, (1850,) making the *cash* value of the dividend $70, so that stockholders actually received 162 per cent in five years. The stock and other dividends made in 1850 alone amounted to full *one hundred per cent* cash value.

BRITISH LIFE INSURANCE COMPANIES OF THE LAST TWELVE YEARS.

[From Chambers Edinburgh Journal.]

Some idea may now be formed regarding the success of the many life-offices started in consequence of the act 7th and 8th Victoria, cap. 110, (*anno* 1844) returns having been made to the House of Commons of the accounts of a large proportion of these concerns. From an instructive analysis of these accounts, published by Mr. Robert Christie, of Edinburgh, the public may obtain a ready and serviceable light on the subject; and we know few on which it imports them more to be well informed.

It must be generally known that, previous to 1844, there were comparatively few life-assurance offices in the United Kingdom, and that these were mostly of old standing, extensive business, and large means. To add, in a few years, as many as 131 new offices to the comparatively small number previously existing, was a proceeding about the prudence of which doubts might reasonably be entertained, seeing that each new concern must necessarily have large expenses in proportion to the business done; while if the same business could have been as well done by the old offices, all new expense whatever was just so much money thrown away. The positive results show that the doubts on this subject were well founded. We find that generally the business effected by the new offices has been small in amount, while the expenses are in proportion great. Thus, for example, we have one office receiving in all of premiums £86,592, and disbursing £35,165 in expenses. Another has £11,394 of premiums, and £10,262 of expenses. A third has £20,054 of premiums, and £25,539 of expenses! The two relative sums are in other cases £22,630 and £14,396; £25,867 and £22,637; £4,026 and £6,304; £24,891 and £24,080. One office, which has been particularly demonstrative about its success, shews of business £13,711, and of expenses £32,349, or about 2 to 5. Another, of the same character, exhibits £12,981 of business, and £11,539 of expenses. In eighteen offices, chiefly of recent origin, the aggregate premiums received have been £69,748, or about as much as one good old office will receive in a quarter of a year; while the expenses have been £86,548 or £17,000 more than the premiums. Some allowance ought here to be made for the newness of things; but take thirty-four of the oldest of this set, and what do we find? Against £1,466,393 of premiums, £801,377 of expenses!

We are here dealing with fifty-two offices which have registered their accounts. There are other sixteen of those registered, whose accounts being either defective

or indistinct, do not appear in the analysis referred to, and there are sixty-five which have failed to register, without any reason being given. Generally, we may well believe, these last are not likely to be more flourishing than the others.

Now, let it be considered what an extent of obligation is implied in the words "premiums received." We estimate that in the fifty-two offices which have registered their accounts, there are policies standing to the amount of not less than *sixteen millions.* What a gulf is here to be filled up before any prosperity can be attained! Is one in six of these concerns likely to struggle through its early difficulties? What, in a great number of instances, are the prospects of payment for the parties who have invested their savings in these offices?

The whole affair points to a great defect in the political economy received and acted upon by the public. Because good effects are seen to arise from competition in some matters, it is hastily assumed that competition is a healthy and serviceable thing in all. The truth is, there are many things in which competition only speaks of unnecessary expense—injudicious application of labor and capital. The supply of water and gas, the railway service, life assurance, and assurance in general, are of this nature. If the million and a half of premiums received by the fifty-two new offices had been distributed over the old ones, the public would have been as well served in all conceivable respects, there would have been perfect certainty of all obligations being fulfilled, and the expense of the business would have probably been, as we believe it generally is, under ten per cent.

Experience and proved results now entitle us, we think, to say more emphatically than ever, let no life-policy be taken out in any office of date subsequent to 1844. While those old, solid, well-known concerns, the Globe, Sun, Equitable, Rock, Eagle, Albion, and many others in England, and the Widow's Fund, Scottish Equitable, Scottish Provident, Standard, and others in Scotland—in which country there has never yet been one unsound establishment for life assurance—offer such benefits along with perfect security, it is little less than madness to embark money with any of the fry of the last few years. The public should be only too happy to think that there are offices which have, through age, attained perfect solidity, and by large business come to the minimum of relative expenses. To pass over these, and take up with new establishments, is voluntarily and wantonly to forego a great advantage. He who goes into a newly plastered house when he can get a seasoned one, who munches hard gooseberries when he can get ripe apricots, who reverses the whole philosophy of the oaths of Highgate, affords but a faint type of such folly.

MARINE LOSSES.

The last eighteen months have been exceedingly prolific in marine losses, and it has occasioned but little surprise that several of the New York marine insurance companies have been forced to go into liquidation. The offices in Philadelphia have suffered very largely, and we hear that one of the Boston offices has, during the year, paid losses to the amount of double its capital, yet is still enabled to declare a dividend. These losses, however, are by no means confined to this side of the Atlantic. As an evidence of the extraordinary losses occurring, it is stated by the London *Insurance Moniteur* that "a return has been printed of the wrecks and casualties on or near the coasts of the United Kingdom in 1855." The result is deplorable. The total number of wrecks and casualties were 1,141, of 176,544 tons. Of the vessels, 963 were British, 11 colonial, and 116 foreign; of which number were totally wrecked, 272; stranded and recovered, 246; stranded, but whether total or partial loss not reported, 167; totally lost in collision, 55; seriously damaged in collision, 178; slightly damaged in collision, 14; leaky and foundered, 49; leaky and put back to discharge and repair, 47; destroyed by fire, 14; found "derelict," 19; dismasted and otherwise damaged, 49; abandoned, 20;

capsized and sunk, 9; seriously damaged by spontaneous combustion of cargo, 2. Of these, 576 occurred on the east coast; 251 on the west coast; and 117 on the south coast of Great Britain; 127 on the Irish coast; 10 off the Scilly Islands; 6 off the Channel Islands; 34 off the northern islands, viz.:—Orkneys, Shetland, and Hebrides; 13 off the Isle of Man; and 7 off Lundy Island. In 1855, the total number of lives lost was 469; in 1854, 1,549; in 1853, 689; in 1852, 920. The number of collisions reported is greatly on the increase, being 247 against 94 registered in 1854; 73 in 1853; and 57 in 1852. This increase is, perhaps, attributable, in part, at any rate, to the same cause as that of the number of wrecks above-mentioned. Total amount paid to life-boats during the year, £582 3s. 8d.; total amount as rewards for saving life, $655 3s.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

FACTS ABOUT GRAIN MEASURES.

The following interesting statement, explanatory of foreign grain measures, was communicated to the Richmond *Whig* by a merchant of that city, who has been engaged for a long series of years in commercial intercourse with Transatlantic countries:—

There is no uniform measure by which grain is sold in Great Britain. In London, wheat and corn are sold by the quarter of 480 pounds, equal 8 bushels of 60 lbs. In Liverpool, wheat is sold by the bushel of 70 lbs., and corn by the quarter of 480 lbs. English flour is sold by the sack of 280 lbs.; American, by the barrel of 196 lbs., every barrel weighed, and 20 lbs. deducted for tare. Gloucester, Glasgow, Cork, and other markets, each has its own peculiar measure—bushels of 62 or 64 lbs., bolls of 240 lbs., barrels, sacks, stones—a perfect confusion of weights and measures. The duty on wheat and other grain in Great Britain is 1 shilling (24 cents;) on flour, 4½ pence on 112 lbs.

In France, the hectolitre of wheat is (decimally) 2.85 bushels.

In Amsterdam, the last is 83 37 bushels; in Dantzic, 87.15 bushels; in Rostock, 105.71 bushels.

In Odessa, the chetwort is 6.06 bushels; in Petersburg, 5.49 bushels. The Swedish tonne is 3.97 bushels; the Danish, 4.74 bushels.

The Spanish fanega is 1.62 bushels; the Lisbon alquire, 41 bushels.

The tomalo of Naples is 1.57 bushels; the emine of Genoa, 3.34 bushels; the Leghorn sack, 2 bushels.

What a blessing it would be to have one universal standard of weights, measures, and coins, or money of account; but the English bankers are opposed to making even decimal divisions of the pound sterling.

In connection with the above, we publish the annexed elucidation of the method of translating or reducing the English quotations of wheat into Federal money. If inaccurate in any particular, we ask that it may be corrected:—

"A quarter of wheat is an English measure of 8 standard bushels; so if you see that quoted at 56s., it is 7s. per bushel. A shilling is 24 cents; multiply by 7, and you have $1 68."

The above old rule for ascertaining the value of a bushel of wheat conformably to English quotations, is tolerably correct, so far as regards the quotations which are confined to the English standard, or rather imperial bushel; but is incorrect,

if applied to Liverpool quotations. It often occurs that when wheat is quoted at London at 40s. per quarter of 8 imperial bushels, it will rate at 6s. per bushel of 70 lbs. in Liverpool. The London price current usually quotes wheat at so much per quarter, (8 imperial bushels of 60 lbs. each,) and the Liverpool price current, (per Brown, Shipley & Co.,) almost invariably at so much per bushel of 70 lbs. The Liverpool local bushels being one-sixth larger than the American or imperial bushel, it follows that when a bushel of wheat is quoted at 6s. per bushel of 70 lbs., it is equal only to 5s. 2d. per American or imperial bushel of 60 lbs.

Therefore, if you see wheat quoted at 6s. per bushel in Liverpool, it will not do to multiply by 24, in order to ascertain the difference between the American and English prices. As applicable to Liverpool quotations, the rule should be thus: Deduct one-seventh from the Liverpool price per bushel, reduce the remainder to pence, and double the product for cents.

EXAMPLE:—A circular by the Cambria, in August, quotes wheat at 6s. per bushel of 70 pounds; 6—1-7—5s. 2d., or 62d.; double for cents—$1 24 per bushel.

CHINESE SUGAR-CANE AND GEORGIA SIRUP.

The following communication from Mr. Richard Peters, of Atlanta, Georgia, touching the result of his sirup-making from the Chinese sugar, (millet,) will be read with interest by a portion of our Southern subscribers:—

I obtained my start of seed during the spring of 1855 from D. Redmond, Esq., of the *Southern Cultivator*. I considered it a "humbug," from its close resemblance in seed and growth to the "Guinea corn," until my children towards fall made the discovery of its being to their taste equal to the true sugar cane.

This year I planted one patch, April 15th, another May 18th, near Calhoun, Gordon County, on land that would produce during a "seasonable" year, forty bushels of corn per acre, and this year not over twenty bushels.

Seed sown carelessly in drills, three feet apart, covered with a one-horse plow; intending to "chop-out" to a stand of one stalk six inches apart in the row; but failed to get a good stand as the seed came up badly from the deep and irregular covering. Worked out same as for corn, plowing twice and hoeing once.

By suggestion of Governor Hammond, of South Carolina, I determined to give the sirup-making a fair trial; consequently ordered from the Messrs. Winship, of Atlanta, a very complete horse-power mill, with vertical iron rollers, that has worked admirably, crushing out juice for eight gallons of sirup per hour, worked by two mules, with one hand to put in the cane, and a boy to drive.

On the 13th of this month, finding the seed fully ripe, I had the fodder pulled, and the seed heads cut.

Yield of fodder per acre, 1,100 to 1,300 pounds.

Yield of seed per acre, 25 bushels of 36 pounds to the bushel.

First trial of mill, 70 average canes gave 20 quarts of juice.

Six hundred and six average canes passed once through the rollers gave 38 gallons 1 quart juice, passed a second time through, gave 2 gallons of juice. The 40 gallons 1 quart gave eight gallons thick sirup.

I carefully measured an eighth of an acre, having the best canes and the best stand; another eighth having the poorest canes and the poorest stand. The result I give below, the canes passed once through the roller:—

BEST EIGHTH OF AN ACRE.

Yield of juice from 3,315 canes.....gallons	253
Yield of sirup from 253 gallons juice.....	58½
Rate per acre of sirup.....	468

POOREST EIGHTH OF AN ACRE.

Yield of juice from 2,550 canes	gallons	179
Yield of sirup from 179 gallons juice		43½
Rate per acre of sirup		346
Weight of 30 selected canes	lbs.	49½
Weight of juice pressed out		25½
Weight of crushed cane		23
Loss in crushing		½
Weight of crushed cane dried in the sun		9½

Obtaining such unlooked-for success with the Chinese sugar cane, I concluded to try our common corn.

From a "new ground" planted 3 by 3, one stalk to a hill, a week beyond the roasting-ear stage, I selected 30 stalks.

Weight of thirty stalks	lbs.	35½
Weight of juice		15½
Weight of crushed stalks		19½
Loss in crushing		½
Yield of sirup	pints	1½

The sirup of a peculiar disagreeable taste, entirely unfit for table use.

The following tests were made at the mill by Dr. Robert Battey, of Rome, Georgia, a graduate of the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy:—

Specific gravity of the juice	10,085
Specific gravity of sirup	1,335
Specific gravity of New Orleans sirup	1,321
Thermometer applied to sirup	77°
Thermometer applied to juice	70°
Saccharometer applied to juice	25½°

The juice should be placed in the boilers immediately on being pressed out, then boiled slowly, until the green scum ceases to rise; then stir in a tea-spoonfull of air-slacked lime to five gallons of juice; continue skimming and boiling until the sirup thickens, and hangs down in flakes on the rim of the dipper.

I have made the clearest sirup by simply boiling and skimming, without lime or other clarifiers.

The lime is requisite to neutralize a portion of the acid in the juice; the true proportion must be determined by well-conducted experiments.

The cost of making the sirup in upper Georgia, in my opinion, will not exceed ten to fifteen cents per gallon. This I shall be able to test another season, by planting and working up fifty acres of the cane.

I am satisfied that this plant will enable every farmer and planter in the Southern States to make at home all the sirup required for family use, and I believe, that our chemists will soon teach us how to convert the sirup into sugar for export, as one of the staples of our favored clime.

COTTON CROP OF SOUTH ALABAMA FOR TWENTY-EIGHT YEARS.

Years.	Bales.	Increase.	Decrease.	Years.	Bales.	Increase.	Decrease
1829...	80,329	9,174	....	1843...	482,631	164,316	....
1830...	102,684	22,355	....	1844...	468,126	.....	14,505
1831...	113,075	10,391	...	1845...	517,550	49,424	....
1832...	125,605	12,530	....	1846...	421,669	.....	95,881
1833...	129,366	3,761	....	1847...	322,516	.....	69,153
1834...	149,513	20,147	....	1848...	438,324	115,808	....
1835...	197,847	48,334	....	1849...	517,846	79,522	....
1836...	237,590	39,743	....	1850...	350,297	.....	167,549
1837...	232,685	.....	4,905	1851...	451,697	101,400	....
1838...	309,807	77,122	....	1852...	549,772	98,075	....
1839...	251,742	.....	58,065	1853...	546,514	.....	3,258
1840...	445,725	193,983	....	1854...	538,110	.....	8,404
1841...	317,642	.....	126,083	1855...	454,595	.....	83,515
1842...	318,315	673	....	1856...	659,738	205,143	....

COTTON CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.

According to the annual statements of the New York *Shipping and Commercial List*, the total crop for 1856 was 3,527,845 bales, and in 1855 it was 2,847,339 bales, and in 1854 it was 2,930,027—showing an increase in 1856 over 1855 of 680,506 bales, and an increase over the crop of 1854 of 597,818 bales, and over the crop of 1853 an increase of 264,963 bales. The crop of 1856 is, we believe, the largest ever produced. We also give a comparative statement of the crops of each year, from 1823 to 1856, as follows:—

Crop of—	Bales.	Crop of—	Bales.
1855-56	3,527,845	1838-39	1,360,532
1854-55	2,847,339	1837-38	1,801,497
1853-54	2,930,027	1836-37	1,422,930
1852-53	3,262,882	1835-36	1,360,725
1851-52	3,015,029	1834-35	1,254,328
1850-51	2,355,257	1833-34	1,205,394
1849-50	2,096,706	1832-33	1,070,438
1848-49	2,728,596	1831-32	987,477
1847-48	2,347,634	1830-31	1,038,848
1846-47	1,778,651	1829-30	976,845
1845-46	2,100,537	1828-29	870,415
1844-45	2,394,503	1827-28	727,593
1843-44	2,030,409	1826-27	957,281
1842-43	2,378,875	1825-26	720,027
1841-42	1,683,574	1824-25	569,249
1840-41	1,634,945	1823-24	509,158
1839-40	2,177,835		

Crop of Sea Island Cotton. The crop of this staple the past year was as follows:—Florida, 10,900 bales; Georgia, 13,245; and South Carolina, 20,367—total, 44,512 bales, against 40,841 bales last year, and 39,686 the year before.

A CURIOUS QUESTION IN AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.

A Scotch paper notes as a singular illustration of the inexactness of agricultural knowledge, that the question, "How many seeds there are in the pound of our commonly cultivated field plants?" should still remain to be answered. The question is certainly more curious than practical, but it is, nevertheless, like all curious things, quite an interesting one. The writer in the Scotch journal discourses after this manner—his figures nearly approximate to accuracy, and we suppose that seeds may be weighed with as much exactness as gold:—

If, in ordinary practice, 1,200,000 seeds of wheat are sown on every 40,000 superficial feet, or, what is more extraordinary, 15,000,000 to 18,000,000 seeds of flax are scattered on the same extent, about 3 to every inch, it is surely well to let the farmer know it. He knows very well he does not raise so many plants as this; and struck, as he must be, by the enormous disproportion between the means he uses and the result he gets, he will inquire into its causes.

The turnip-seed employed per acre number from 600,000 to 1,000,000, according to the kind and quantity adopted; this, if the rows are 2 feet apart, is 2 or 3 dozen seeds per foot of row, where a single plant alone is to be grown. No doubt, nothing like so many generally come up; but then there is a destruction by the hoe which will explain much of the discrepancy in this case. What, however, becomes of the 18,000,000 seeds of flax which are commonly, of the 6,000,000 seeds of oats which are commonly sown per acre? There is no destruction by the hoe in either instance here. A single ear of oats may contain 100 grains; a single plant will generally include half-a-dozen ears, but if 6,000,000 should yield as much as this implies, they would produce 100 loads of grain.

Instead of 600 seeds a piece, they yield but half-a-dozen each to produce an ordinary crop of oats. It is plain that five-sixths of the seeds or of the plants they produce, are killed in the cultivation of the crop; and the proportion is vastly greater than this in the case of other plants. What is the ordinary seedling of the clover crop? 8 pounds of white clover, 4 of red clover, 4 of trefoil, may be sown—that is at least 6,000,000 seeds per acre, a seed on every inch of land—but instead of 144, there are generally half-a-dozen plants on every square foot of the clover field.

There are about 25,000 seeds sanfoin in a pound of "rough seed," as it is called, and it weighs some 20 pounds per bushel; 4 bushels is an ordinary seeding, and they contain 2,000,000 seeds, or 50 per square foot of land. This is the number, too, in an ordinary seeding of vetches. It is manifest that in both these cases there is an enormous destruction of young plants or seeds, and these are the two great divisions under which the causes of this anomaly must be classed—faults of seed and sowing and faults of cultivation.

We are enabled, by the assistance of Messrs. Rendle, of Plymouth, to lay before them the following answers to the question, "How many seeds to the pound?" viz.:—

Name.	No. of seeds per lb.	No. of pounds per bushel.
Wheat	10,500	58 to 54
Barley	15,400	48 to 46
Oats	20,000	38 to 42
Rye	28,000	56 to 60
Canary grass	54,000	.. to ..
Buckwheat	25,000	48 to 55
Turnip, Rendle's Swede	155,000	50 to 56
" Cornish Holdfast	230,000	50 to 56
" Orange Jelly	133,000	50 to 56
Cabbage, Scotch Drumhead	128,000	56
Cabbage, Drumhead Savoy	110,000	50 to 56
Clover, red	249,600	60
Clover, white	686,400	59 to 62
Rye grass, perennial	314,000	26 to 28
Rye-grass, Italian	272,000	13 to 18
Sweet Vernal Grass	923,200	8

GROWTH OF AFRICAN COTTON.

The Paris correspondent of the London *Times*, referring to an interesting report from Marshal Vaillant to the Emperor, says:—

In this document the Minister of War recognizes the good effects of the decrees of the 16th October, 1853, by which an annual prize of 20,000f. was allotted, for five years, to the best cotton-grower in the Franco-African colony; and for three years, commencing with 1854, the whole cotton produce of Algeria was ordered to be purchased by the State, at a price fixed beforehand, and advantageous to the producer. In consequence of this encouragement, the growth of cotton has increased, and it has been proved not only that the plant flourishes in many districts of the colony, but that its quality is comparable to that of the finest produce of the United States. A prolongation of the advantages assured to the producer is suggested, and it has accordingly been decreed that the government will continue to purchase the whole of the Algerine cotton until the crop of 1858 inclusively. It may not be uninteresting to our manufacturers to watch the progress of this fresh field, which, judiciously nurtured by the French Government, may, perhaps, ere very many years have passed, compete for their custom with the vast cotton-grounds of the States. It is yet too soon to risk a prediction as to what Algeria may do in this way, but present appearances are favorable, and doubtless France will neglect no means of converting into a profitable colony a territory which has hitherto served but as an expensive training-ground for her soldiers.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

THE POPULATION OF CITY AND COUNTRY:

WITH REFERENCE TO HEALTH AND THE CHANCES OF LIFE.

We have before us a table, as recently prepared by the authorities of Massachusetts, in which the following figures are given. They show the average ages at death of the chief occupations in that State:—

Agriculturists	63.93	Manufacturers	43.28
Bakers	43.45	Masons	47.78
Bank-officers	63.76	Mechanics	43.45
Blacksmiths	51.44	Merchants	51 71
Butchers	50.00	Musicians	39.86
Calico-printers	51.33	Operatives	32.93
Carpenters	49.39	Painters	42.68
Clerks	34.36	Physicians	54.94
Clergymen	55.72	Printers	38.01
Coopers	58.31	Public-officers	56.87
Editors	40.00	Rope-makers	54.50
Gentlemen	68.19	Shipwrights	55.27
Hatters	54.27	Shoemakers	43.12
Jewellers	44.05	Tailors	44.35
Judges and justices	65.00	Teachers	34.46
Lawyers	54.43	Traders	46.35
Machinists	36.41		

The difference, it will be seen, is quite remarkable. Two results are apparent. In the first place, the life of a farmer is much longer, in a general sense, than the life of an individual who resides in the city; and in the second, the kinds of occupation in cities exercise a wonderful influence. Thus, the average of machinists is little more than thirty-six years, while that of bank-officers is more than sixty-three; that of coopers more than fifty-eight; that of public-officers more than fifty-six; and that of clergymen is more than fifty-five. It is stated that the average of teachers is little more than thirty-four years. We think, however, that there must be some mistake in this. The average for editors is forty, and for gentlemen sixty-eight. The contrast is somewhat striking. Physicians, it will be observed, average nearly fifty-five years, while printers go a trifle beyond thirty-eight. It is said that like results have attended similar examinations in England.

The New York *Evening Post*, in some intelligent observations upon the subject, says that upon examination it will be found "that the length or brevity of life, as developed in these tables, is not accidental, but is dependent upon causes which it is unfortunately much easier to ascertain than it is to relieve. Those whose pursuits lead them most in the open air appear to enjoy the most uninterrupted health and the greatest length of life. At the head of this class stands the agriculturist, who, although exposed in many parts of his employment to the vicissitudes of the weather, seldom suffers from this cause, and attains an advanced age. The shipwright and caulker, exposed to the heat of summer and the cold of winter, are longer lived than the cabinet-maker and the joiner, whose labor, although not unhealthy, confines them within. In the list of out-door occupations is that of the butcher, which, on account of the noisome atmosphere of the slaughter-house, might be supposed unwholesome, but it is, on the contrary, one

of the most healthy of the mechanic arts. The habit of the butcher, as is well known, is to be much in the open air, on hosreback, scouring the surrounding country, and frequently extending his rides to a considerable distance, in search of material for his shambles. The life of the butcher is rendered shorter than it otherwise would be, by his indulgence in high living, which gives him an appearance of jocund health, very different from that of many tradesmen, but at the same time predisposes to congestion of the blood-vessels, especially of the head and abdomen, and often shortens his days at the very moment when he seems to be in the enjoyment of the best health. A full habit and florid countenance are just as natural to him as a spare form and pallid face are to the baker. Bakers are not only confined much within doors, but are likewise subject to exposures incident to their trade. In common with the miller, they are liable to an irritation of the skin by constant contact with flour, which occasionally produces a variety of scaly eruptions termed psoriasis, but the greatest injury to health is induced by the high temperature of their work-shop, which seldom falls below 90°, and frequently exceeds 100°. Confectioners are subject to the same influences, and suffer accordingly; besides, the inhalation and constant tasting of sugar is so destructive to the teeth, that it is rare to see a confectioner with a good set of teeth, and nothing is more common than to meet those who have lost, at an early age, nearly every tooth by decay. Among household domestics, cooks, who are exposed to the heat of the fire, are more liable to disease than the ordinary house-maids."

DESTINATION OF IMMIGRANTS ARRIVING AT NEW YORK.

The following interesting table was prepared by J. A. Kennedy, Esq., Superintendent of Castle Garden. It shows the destination and amount of money possessed by all the emigrants who arrived at the port of New York during the eleven months previous to July 30, 1856 :—

Destination.	No. of immigrants.	Am't of their cash capital.
Six New England States	8,134	$121,523 01
Fifteen Slave States and District of Columbia	3,256	194,588 73
New York	39,943	1,291,628 09
New Jersey	2,272	214,955 79
Pennsylvania	8,421	546,033 78
Ohio	6,117	479,633 90
Indiana	1,309	101,861 63
Illinois	7,713	698,456 31
Michigan	2,887	199,300 86
Wisconsin	10,000	1,045,661 39
Iowa	1,855	248,335 40
California	806	165,125 13
Minnesota	305	35,156 00
Kansas	3	128 00
Utah	1,829	55,679 93
Oregon	1	10 00
Total	105,707	$5,398,369 54
Total of the Free States and Territories	102,451	5,203,480 81

We have a vast territory of unoccupied land, and aside from the capital brought by immigrants, nothing adds so materially to the development of our resources, and consequently wealth, as able-bodied men from abroad. If a slave is worth a

thousand dollars to his master, is not a free white laborer worth as much or more to the country? That is a narrow and contracted political economy that would check foreign immigration.

POPULATION AND VOTERS IN IOWA.

The following is the aggregate vote of members of Congress for a series of years, since the organization of the State government:—

1846.	1848.	1850.	1852.	1854.	1856.
15,005	24,261	25,457	26,691	51,629	73,732

The biennial census returns of the population for the same period are as follows; for 1856, the official returns not having yet been made:—

1846.	1848.	1850.	1852.	1854.
78,988	130,948	192,204	230,000	326,014

It will be perceived by the above figures that the average increase of voters in the State, and also of inhabitants, has been about 50 per cent in two years. At the same rate of increase the population of Iowa in 1860 will exceed 1,250,000.

THE MARRIAGE POPULATION OF ENGLAND.

THE STATISTICS AND LAWS WHICH GOVERN IT.

The influence of periods of scarcity on marriage is fully established by official statistics in England. The report of the register general of births, deaths, and marriages, shows that from the cessation of the famine in 1848 up to 1854, the number of marriages was continually on the increase; and that in the latter year, for the first time in seven years, they began to decline. A superficial observer might suppose that the Eastern war, which broke out in 1854, was the cause of this falling off. But the decrease in the number of marriages commenced in the first quarter of the year, before war was proclaimed, and months before the waste of life, caused by hostilities, could affect the result. The real cause must, therefore, be sought elsewhere. It is to be found in the fact that in November, 1853, the price of wheat rose to seventy-two shillings and fivepence per quarter—nearly double what it had been in 1852, and considerably more than it had been since 1847. This enormous rise was attended by a great check to the foreign trade of England, especially with this country and Australia, produced by the scarcity of wheat here and in that colony; and to these causes, all resolving themselves really into one, the decline in marriages is really to be attributed.

Nor is this the only law deducible from the English marriage statistics. The number of marriages between old men and young women, which might be supposed to vary year by year, is annually about the same. So are the marriages between widowers and spinsters, between widowers and bachelors, between minors, and generally between persons in cases that would be thought exceptionable. So also the females married under age appear, year after year, to be to the males, likewise married under age, in the proportion of three to one. In like manner the number of bridegrooms who could not write their names to the marriage register, hardly varied four per cent in six years; while the number of brides who had to make their mark exhibited a similar ratio; so that if allowance be made for the increasing efforts to extend education, the real proportion was the same, year after year. Another law established by the statistics is, that up to

the age of twenty-five, the number of females marrying exceeds that of the males; but after that period the number of males marrying exceeds that of the females. Thus, though women live longer than men they marry earlier.

There is no doubt that similar results would appear in the United States if statistics of marriages were kept here as they are in England. Our bills of mortality prove that the number of deaths annually bear a certain proportion to our population; and that this holds good universally, except in years of severe pestilence, and even then, if the statistics of the entire globe could be obtained, it is probable that the law would still be found to prevail. The number of lives lost by accidents exhibits a similar uniformity. In a word, in everything which superficially seems controlled entirely by chance, the working of a great and steady law may be traced, which, week by week, month by month, and year by year, averages its results. Thus nature, if we may so phrase it, creates uniformity out of diversity. Annually, in a given population, about the same number of births occur, and always the males slightly exceed the females, so as to provide for the greater degree to which the former are liable to casualties and exposure. Annually, in a given population, the same number of persons marry; and annually, in a given population, death claims the same proportion of victims.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

EXPENSES OF RAILROAD MANAGEMENT.

From the report (just published) of the Superintendent, D. C. McCollum, Esq. of the New York and Erie Railroad, for the month of July, 1856, we gather some interesting facts regarding the working expenses of that road. The cost per mile for engineers and firemen is 5.22 cents; for waste, oil, and tallow per mile, 1.50 cents; for repairs of engines per mile, 8.66 cents; for fuel, per mile, 13.38 cents—total cost per mile, 28.76 cents. The greatest item of expense is fuel, one cord being required for every 27.67 miles, the cost of which is $3 60. Our railroads will soon be compelled to employ coal as a fuel. No less than 10,032 cords were consumed on this railroad in July, in running 287,587 miles. The number of cords of wood consumed per annum, at this rate, amounts to 120,384 cords, or a pile 182 miles long, 4 feet high, and 4 feet broad. Our forests must soon go down before such fiery dragons as our railroads, which, with but few exceptions, use wood for fuel exclusively.

The cost per mile for fuel for each ton drawn amounts only to 88.100 cents, but we find that more dead weight is carried than useful load; 14,277,440 tons of useful load were carried per mile, and 15,007,339 tons of dead load. The weight of the engines, cars, &c., being classed as dead weight, paying nothing. A great saving would be effected if some of this dead load could be dispensed with.

The expense for repairing engines is also very great, averaging $8 66 per 100 miles; and, allowing an engine to run 100 miles per day for 300 days during the year, the cost amounts to $2,598. The price of an engine being about $10,000, it destroys itself, at this rate, in about four years. The *Scientific American* (good authority) expresses the opinion that a perfectly constructed railroad—

one avoiding rapid curves and steep inclines, and having a solid, well-laid track—could be worked for at least one-half the expense incurred on our best railroads.

At present, the stocks of a majority of our railroads are very low; few of them are in a paying condition, and unless they can reduce their working expenses, we do not see how they can retrieve themselves, and become profitable and paying concerns.

BROOKLYN CITY RAILROADS.

The several roads of the Brooklyn City Railroad Company, four in number, were opened in part on the 3d of July, 1854; that is, the cars of the Myrtle and Flushing roads commenced running on that day, and the Fulton on the 6th of July. The Greenwood and Court-street was not opened until the 8th of August, 1854. The length of the several roads is 30 miles. The capital stock, as per original charter, was $2,500,000, (divided into shares of $25,) the whole amount of which was subscribed. The capital has since been reduced to $1,000,000, and the shares reduced to $10 each. Three-fourths of the number of shares of the company were issued as full stock at $10 each, and one-fourth the shares as scrip stock at $10 each—50 per cent paid, and 50 per cent due when called for, with the privilege to all stockholders to make this stock full within a specified time; $27,660 were paid in voluntarily under this privilege, that is, before it was called for. The company has no funded debt. The value of property belonging to the company on the 30th of September, 1855, including the superstructure, cars, horses, fixtures, and 129 stages, sleighs, feed and other wagons, as estimated, amounted to $910,332. The total cost of managing the road for the year ending 30th of September, 1855, amounted to $253,175; and the earnings during the same time, from passengers, interest, and other sources, to $322,116.

The following table, compiled from the report of the Railroad Commissioners for the year ending September 30th, 1855, and from the books of the company for year ending same time in 1856, exhibits the receipts for the twelve months of the last two years, both ending 30th of September:—

	1855.		1856.	
	Passengers.	Receipts.	Passengers.	Receipts.
October	499,774	$26,588 51	641,547	$32,077 38
November	460,383	23,719 28	558,080	27,901 50
December	399,767	20,171 71	504,992	25,249 60
January	477,575	24,045 16	445,134	22,256 71
February	377,116	18,878 43	276,163	13,808 17
March	466,936	22,883 27	425,277	21,263 84
April	506,317	24,757 97	538,358	26,917 93
May	606,793	29,785 54	620,643	31,032 16
June	626,322	30,982 51	615,293	30,764 64
July	624,745	31,084 45	698,498	34,924 91
August	644,235	31,917 28	612,420	30,621 00
September	633,596	31,319 82	616,227	30,811 37
Total	6,324,559	$316,133 93	6,552,582	$327,629 21

The above table shows an increase in the number of passengers, 1856 over 1855, of 228,023; and in receipts, of $11,495 28. The comparatively small increase of passengers and receipts in 1856, over the previous year, is to be accounted for in the fact that the business of the road was interrupted on the 6th

of January, 1856, by the heavy snow storm, and the subsequently severe cold weather. The cars were not run after that date on all the routes until the 6th of March. During the interval the business was done by sleighs and stages, with greatly reduced receipts and increased expenses. Besides, from about the middle of August to 1st of October, the Greenwood route suffered a decrease of receipts of from $75 to $100 per day on account of the existence of what was supposed to be the yellow or ship fever.

MILES RUN TO ONE CORD OF FUEL.

The following is a table showing the number of miles run by each engine, and the amount of wood used, for the whole year ending July 31st, 1856, exclusive of gravel or dirt trains, on the Southwestern (Ga.) Railway:—

Engine.	Miles run as freight.	Miles run as passenger.	Total miles run.	Cords wood used.	Average miles per cord.
Choctaw	6,712	12,700	19,412	217	89.45
Chickasaw	13,978	5,392	19,370	260 7-8	74.24
Eufaula	17,375	.....	17,375	291 3-8	59.60
Tobesofkee	964	16,094	17,058	158 6-8	113.74
Seminole	.....	27,636	27,636	251 6-8	109.76
Echeconnee	1,950	17,803	19,753	204 5-8	96.48
Muscogee	12,618	5,911	18,529	235 5-8	78.60
Tallahassee	054	.....	14,054	237 5-8	59.05
Cherokee	486	15,658	16,144	174 2-8	92.64
Chatham	1,614	.....	1,614	38 5-8	41.76
Altamaha	100	.....	100	2 5-8	38.08
L. O. Reynolds	100	.....	100	1 7-8	53.30
George Hall	248	.....	248	7	35.43
	Prov. & pay				
Post Boy	324	582	906	6 2-8	148.80
	70,534	101,776	172,299	2,088 -28	.....
General average for the whole year				miles per cord	82.48

RAILROAD FARES BETWEEN NEW YORK AND THE WEST.

The Railroad Convention, held at Cincinnati in September, 1856, have adopted the following report of the committee, in regard to railroad fares between New York and points in the Western States:—

Resolved, That the common fares between New York and common points in the West shall in no case exceed two-and-a-half cents per mile through; and of this sum the road between Crestline and New York receive fourteen dollars and sixty cents.

Under this resolution the fare shall be as follows:—

New York to Columbus	$16 25	New York to St. Louis	$27 25
Cincinnati	18 50	Terre Haute	22 00
Chicago	22 00	Indianapolis	20 00

Resolved, That these rates continue from the first day of November to the first day of April, after which the fare shall be left for future adjustment.

Resolved, That second-class tickets be received on only the train.

The Committee on Freights recommended the adoption of the following rates, to commence on the first day of October, and continue until the taking effect of winter rates, on all Westward-bound freight from New York via the New York

Central, New York and Erie, Pennsylvania Central, and Baltimore and Ohio railroads, to the several points named :—

Class—	1.	2.	3.	4.
New York to Cincinnati—all rail	$1 40	$1 10	$0 93	$0 70
Cincinnati—part rail & part water	1 30	1 05	0 90	0 65
Columbus—all rail	1 37	1 05	0 90	0 60
Columbus—part rail & part water	1 25	1 00	0 85	0 63
Indianapolis—all rail	1 50	1 20	1 00	0 75
Indianapolis—part rail, part water	1 40	1 10	0 95	0 70
Cincinnati to New York—flour	1 25 per barrel.			
4th class, 50 cents per 100 lbs.				
Columbus to New York—flour	1 10 per barrel.			
4th class, 58 cents per 100 lbs.				
Indianapolis to New York—flour	1 30 per barrel.			
4th class, 68 cents per 100 lbs.				

THE PROJECTED SUEZ SHIP CANAL.

The European Commission of Engineers, assembled in Paris to discuss the details of the plan for cutting a canal across the Isthmus of Suez, have brought their labors to a close. The following is a summary statement of the resolutions agreed upon at the various sittings :—

1. The commission have rejected the system of indirect tracts across Egypt, and have adopted the principle of a direct cutting from Suez to the Mediterranean.

2. They have rejected the system of supplying the maritime canal from the fresh water of the Nile, and have adopted that which supplies it with sea-water.

3. They have discussed the advantages and inconveniences of a canal, with continuous embankments, from one sea to the other; and at the close of this discussion it was decided that the canal should not be embanked in its passage across the Bitter Lakes.

4. The effect of the interposition of the Bitter Lakes, thus left open to the waters of the canal, being to neutralize the tidal currents, the commission have considered that the locks proposed at each end of the canal, at Suez and Pelusium, would not be indispensable. They have left it open, however, to establish these locks at a future period, should they be judged necessary.

5. It has confirmed the breadth of 100 meters (328 feet) at the water line, and 66 meters (207 feet) at the bottom, throughout the main course of the canal; for the portion 20 kilometers (12½ miles) in length, between Suez and the Bitter Lakes which is to be lined with stone, the breadth is reduced to 80 meters at the water lines, (262 feet,) and 48 meters (156 feet) at the bottom.

6. The section of the precursory scheme drawn up by the Viceroy's engineers is in other respects maintained.

7. As regards the entrance into the Mediterranean, to be called Port Said, the commission adopt the plan of jetties proposed by those of its members who proceeded to Egypt, with the exception that the breadth of the channel will be 400 meters, or 1,312 feet, instead of 500 meters, (1,640 feet,) and an inner basin will be added.

8. As regards the port of Suez, on the Red Sea, the commission adopt the situation and direction given to the channel. The breadth will be 300 meters, (984 feet,) instead of 400, and an inner basin will be added. The jetties will terminate at a depth of six meters, (19 ft. 8 in.,) low water, and a broad channel in the direction of the jetties will be dredged to a depth of nine meters, (29½ ft. 9 in.)

9. The commission declare that beacon lights of the first order will have to be established to point out shoals on the Egyptian coast and on the shores of the Red Sea, as a necessary consequence of opening the canal.

10. A port for taking in stores and refitting will be created in Lake Menzaleh.

11. As regards the auxiliary canals supplied with fresh water from the Nile, while the commission prefer, in a technical point of view, the plan of a canal from

Zagazig, near Bilbies, they leave the choice of the best mode of executing it to the judgment of the engineers to whom the works will be intrusted.

12. Lastly, from the detailed information given by the naval officers, members of the commission, it is established that the navigation of the Red Sea is as favorable as that of the Mediterranean and the Adriatic. This was the substance of the opinion given to the commission by Captain Harris, who has performed seventy voyages from Suez to India.

FUEL FOR LOCOMOTIVES—COAL AND WOOD.

The report of Nathan Hale, on the cost of fuel on the Boston and Worcester Railroad in the year 1855, and experiments for testing the success of coal-burning engines in reducing the cost, as published in the Boston *Daily Advertiser* of the 11th September, 1856, has excited much attention. We publish the tables showing, as they do, a most reliable saving of more than 50 per cent in the use of locomotive fuel. Anything that will lead to low fares and good dividends for railroads at the present time, should be received with gratitude. The result, published at the request of the Worcester Road, over the signature of Mr. Hale—for seventeen years president of that road—places the matter beyond a doubt:—

For the purpose of ready comparison, I here recapitulate the prominent results, beginning with the computation based on the year's operations, and followed by those based on the experiments for burning coal:—

I. WOOD-BURNING ENGINES—AVERAGE OF 1855.

Weight of train, average both ways .....tons	153.46
Tons 1 mile per trip.....	6,828
Cost of fuel per trip of 44½ miles.....	$18 69
Cost of fuel per mile of each train.....	41.9
Cost of fuel per ton per mile of each train.....	0.273
Cost of fuel per ton of goods per mile of each train...	0.576

II. COAL-BURNING ENGINE HECLA, WITH BAKER'S CURVES.

Weight of train, average both ways .....tons	149.16
Tons 1 mile per trip.....	6,637
Cost of fuel, per trip of 44½ miles, with wood for kindling.....	$7 01
Cost of fuel per mile of each train.....	15.75
Cost of fuel per ton per mile of each train.....	0.1056
Pounds of coal and wood per trip.....	2,288
Pounds of coal and wood per mile of train	54.4

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

A MANUFACTURER A PEER.

By late files of English papers we see that Mr. Edward Strutt, a noted manufacturer, has been raised to the peerage. This unusual proceeding shows the interest which the Queen takes in the manufacturing pursuits of her dominions, and also the inroads which time is making upon the ancient prejudices and customs. It is the surrender of feudalism to industry. The Manchester *Examiner* says, in remarking on this case, that it is something for those who claim to be regarded as the descendants of the mailed barons of England to admit into their order a man who not only has made, but is making, his fortune by spindles and looms; and if they would have felt some reluctance to take such a step themselves, it is well for them their mistress knows better. The editor of the *Merchants' Magazine* honors like industry. "My father worketh hitherto, and I work."

BAR-IRON: IMPROVEMENT IN ITS MANUFACTURE.

Mr. W. Clay, of Liverpool, has patented some improvements in manufacturing bar-iron. That invention relates to the employment of rolling pressure for the conversion of bar-iron of various sectional figures, as, for example, plain, straight, square bars, or bars of angle iron, or T, or channel-grooved, or trough iron, into taper bars, or bars which, in their cross section, gradually diminish or increase from one point of their length to another, the object being to impart to bars of iron so made different strengths or powers of resistance at different points, and thereby to adapt rolled metal to various uses, where greater strength or rigidity is required at one point than at another. This invention also relates to the adaptation of rolling pressure to the formation of bars, with sudden as well as gradual irregularities of depth or thickness, by which means it is proposed to form projections, protuberances, or indentions on or in the bars at different points, according to the particular purposes for which the iron may be required. Instead of allowing the top roll to rise gradually in its bearings, and thus afford increasing space between the rolling surfaces, (as in his patent of December 16, 1848,) Mr. Clay adjusts the rolls to the work they have to perform, and keeps them to that position until the operation is completed, his object being to produce a class of work the irregularity in the section of which is too great to permit of its being manufactured with facility by the rising-roll process. For forming a taper on the extremity of bars, suitable for railway "points," he sets the rolls to a distance apart that will correspond with the greatest depth which the formed bar is required to measure, say, for example, three inches; and assuming also, for example, that the extremity of the bar is to be tapered down to, say, one inch in depth, he provides a plate of iron or steel of a taper form, and of a thickness corresponding exactly with the diminution of thickness required in the end of the bar under operation. This plate he takes, in its cold state, and places over the end of the bar of red-hot metal, and then passes the two between the rolls. The taper plate acting as a filling piece, or as an eccentric projection on one of the rolls would act, enables the rolls to put a severer pressure on the bar at the part overlaid by the plate, and thus by simple rolling in an ordinary rolling-mill, a tapered bar may be produced.

The application of this principle of rolling may be further extended by giving to the contact face of the overlaying plate, such projections or indentations (whether gradual or sudden) as circumstances may require, such projections or indentations corresponding to, or rather forming a counterpart of, the figure to which the contact surface of the bar is required to be reduced. A plate thus formed, being placed over a heated bar of metal, and submitted with it to the pressure of a pair of rolls, will leave the counterpart impression of its face upon the heated bar of metal. In like manner, when projections or indentations are required on opposite sides of the bar, as will be the case when rolling the spokes for railway wheels, Mr. Clay proposes to inclose the metal to be rolled (the same having been previously heated) between two suitably-shaped pressure-plates, and then to submit the pile to the rolling pressure.

In this way it will be obvious that he can reduce to unequal thickness not merely flat bars or plates of iron, but also angle iron and metal bars having a concave or convex surface. The patentee claims the imparting a rolling pressure to the bar-iron, in the manner and for the purpose above set forth.

PRINCE NAPOLEON ON BRITISH MANUFACTURES.

Prince Napoleon passes a verdict upon the industry of Great Britain in his forthcoming work, entitled "Visits to the Universal Exhibition:"—

On visiting the products of the English department, we were struck at once by the order and harmony with which they were arranged. Everything, from the samples of coal to the most complicated machines, from the costly goldsmith's work of London to the steels of Sheffield and the fabrics of Manchester and Glasgow, was classed with that almost mathematical precision which characterizes the nation. It is easy to understand, by studying the various departments of this exhibition, the strength and vigor that prevail in this intelligent country. We were struck, above all, by the superior application of mechanical force, by the perfection of tools, by the sagacious use of raw materials—by the care, in short, shown in every branch of industry, from the humblest to the most important. The industrial genius of the two countries (France and England) has revealed itself in a marked manner. From the Paris Exhibition, as from that of London, this incontestible economic fact has been proved, namely,—that if England shines by the quality and cheapness of her goods, France excels by the taste and delicacy of her workmanship. If we pass from these general considerations to details, we shall acknowledge that by the side of the products for the elaboration of which England holds the first rank, she has exhibited articles that prove the progress she has made. Her cloths rival those of France and Prussia; her silks hold their place by their cheapness; her goldsmiths are more artistic; her clockwork is without fault; her glass manufactures are remarkable for their clearness and cutting; her chemical products, for which she was, till lately, indebted to foreign countries, are from her own soil; her ceramic manufactures are spread all over the world, commanding by their cheapness and solidity; and her upholstery, printed papers, and even certain fancy articles, exhibit a marked feeling for art. But the decisions of the international jury speak more strikingly than all commentaries. Two thousand five hundred and seventy-four British exhibitors commanded 1,347 rewards. The samples of English metallurgy were remarkable for the care with which they had been collected. Two hundred samples of coal were carefully inscribed with the use to which each sample might be applied. The collection of iron included every variety, from case and worked iron down to the iron ore. Lord Granville sent a sheet of cast iron and two rails, which gave a fair idea of the productive power of English foundries. The ornamental iron work from the Coalbrookdale Company attracted the Prince's attention by the purity of their design and the perfect work. Nor were the agricultural products less worthy of attention. The collections, as arranged by Mr. Wilson, received the approval of the Prince. It included all cultivated plants. The collection of English machinery was as complete as it was various. Such names as the Penns, the Whitworths, the Stephensons, and the Fairbairns, give an idea of the importance the English attached to this department of their exhibition. The Prince turns to the English colonies, and describes them as the finest jewel in the crown of the United Kingdom. They explain the prodigious development which the political and industrial fortune of England has achieved within the last forty years.

GOLD FIELDS BEYOND THE MOUNTAINS.

The Placerville *American* says, that in Carson Valley quite an excitement has grown out of the late discovery of extensive gold placers upon the eastern slope of the Sierra Nevada, in the vicinity of the Truckee Meadows, and extending as far as the Honey Lake Valley country. There is no longer a doubt as to the extent and richness of these newly-discovered placers, and hundreds are making their way to them. There is an advantage possessed by these placers not often found in connection therewith. Occupying the base and foothills of the mountains, they extend in great richness to the verge of the meadows, and to some ex-

tent into them, rendering the country one of the most desirable in the world for settlement, as agricultural and stock-raising pursuits, in connection with mining or not, can be carried on at any or all seasons of the year. Groves of magnificent timber skirt these vast meadows, sometimes extending quite into their midst. Bold and dashing streams of water leap down the canons of the mountains, that serve for either mining or irrigation; while the whole face of nature—mountain, hill, plain, and meadow—are, winter and summer, a perpetual green—quite unlike many portions of California, that are for months together dry and parched with thirst.

VIRGINIA GOLD MINES.

The New York *Tribune* contains a letter from J. WINCHESTER, on the mining capabilities of Virginia. The following are a few extracts from it:—

There are mines on which $100,000 and $300,000 have been expended, and it would puzzle any one to tell what had been done with the money to any better purpose than throwing it into the sea.

California is scarcely a more inviting field for the miner than this very State, not a day's journey from the commercial capital of the Union. Facts in proof are not wanting.

I am well satisfied that, considering the recent improvements in metallurgical science, especially in the treatment of *pyritiferous* ores, which form so large a portion of the gold and copper lodes of the Southern States, a new era is about to be opened, in which capital will find the reward not hitherto realized.

The mine at which I am stopping—the Woodville—after years of perseverance under the direction of Dr. S. F. Ambler, has become a success. Dr. Ambler has recently invented and erected a new and admirable contrivance for working sulphurets. I have seen its operation, and have no doubt whatever that he has hit upon a *desideratum* in the reduction of sulphur ores, and the release of the gold. It needed but such a discovery to render all the auriferous sulphurets profitable, which have ever before stubbornly refused to yield up their treasures.

The whole letter, according to the *Scientific American*, leaves an impression on the mind that gold itself exists in the state of an ore—as sulphurets and pyrites—whereas gold is only associated with the pyrites of copper and iron in some Virginian mines, and is never found as an *ore*, strictly speaking, but commonly as an alloy, with metallic silver, copper, and some other metals. It is plainly stated that the working of auriferous pyrites—gold associated with iron and copper pyrites—in Virginia has hitherto been unprofitable, but by a new invention of Dr. Ambler the gold can be released profitably, and "a new era is about to be opened, in which capital will find a reward not hitherto realized."

Virginia is rich in gold quartz, but her auriferous sulphurets have always been considered poor ores, because they require smelting, which is a far more expensive process than that of amalgamation by mercury, where the gold is found unassociated with the sulphurets of other metals. The statement that auriferous sulphurets have ever before stubbornly refused to yield their treasures, is not correct. Dana, our greatest mineralogist, states that it has been found profitable where metallic sulphurets and other ores are abundant in gold rocks, to work them by smelting, and he describes the profits obtained by smelting such ores in Russia, in comparison with the simple treatment of them by amalgamation. If, by the process of smelting, the gold can be profitably reduced from the auriferous pyrites, this can be easily demonstrated without very expensive apparatus in any of the Virginia mines. The ores of each mine should be fairly tested before expensive

reducing apparatus is fitted up, because their character and quality—even when separated but a short distance—differ so much from one another. It would be hazardous, in our opinion, to invest capital largely in any mine for the reduction of gold from auriferous pyrites, until it was fairly demonstrated that such investment was beyond a doubt safe and profitable.

IMPROVED CANDLE MANUFACTURE.

An improvement has been effected in the manufacture of candles and night-lamps. It consists in employing a solvent with the harder or less easily fusible material used, in order to reduce the melting point, and thus to facilitate its application to candles and night-lamps, the solvent quickly evaporating after the casing, or external coating, has been produced. It is preferred to employ a mixture of stearic acid and white wax, and to dissolve the materials in a proper solvent; and it is preferred to use about half their weight of ordinary spirits of wine. By rapidly dipping candles made of low melting materials into this solution, and withdrawing them, they will be found to be covered with a thin film of hard material, which may be immediately handled. A similar coating may also be obtained by pouring the solution of stearic acid and wax, or other solutions of candle material, into the ordinary molds, and then pouring out the solution, so as to leave a thin casing of the material in the molds, in like manner to what has been done when using hard materials in a melted state without solvent, and concluding the formation of the candles by pouring in an inferior material, or one melting at a lower temperature. Other improvements recently made in candle manufacture are, to employ a wick composed of a great many threads, woven or plaited, or otherwise held together, or of a number of small wicks united; also, employing a jacket or case around the molds capable of being heated from 112° to 132° by gas, steam, or other heating medium; and in manufacturing a candle composed wholly of vegetable wax, or having vegetable wax for its base.

THE GOLD FIELDS OF AUSTRALIA.

The *Mining Journal* notices some interesting facts in the late Sydney newspapers relating to the number of miners engaged in working the mines of New South Wales, including all the prominent gold fields. There are no means of arriving at an exact amount of the gold obtained, but an approximate comparison of the productiveness of the different periods can be obtained from the shipments.

There is quite a mistaken idea prevalent touching the product, if not also of the present richness of these mines. From the papers above referred to, it appears that the number of miners engaged in the placers of New South Wales is about 8,000. This, we infer, does not include those at work in the Victoria mines. Now, the Victoria mines yield about five-and-a-half times as much as does New South Wales. Supposing that the yield per man is about equal in the two localities, we have the total number employed in Australia at 45,000. The total amount of shipments from Australia during the first three years after the discovery of gold there was, in round numbers, as follows:—

1852..... $81,000,000 | 1853..... $67,000,000 | 1854..... $60,000,000

These amounts, it should be recollected, are only the shipments. Large amounts

were retained in the country, some went to the neighboring colonies, and consequently does not appear on the manifests of the home steamers, and, no doubt, much was taken away without manifest.

We have not at hand a full report of the shipments for 1855, but it is well known that extensive discoveries were made that year in new localities, and the returns for the first nine months of that year give an advance on the same period of the previous year of about seven-and-a-quarter millions of dollars. This fact is certainly very encouraging. Still, from all accounts, we feel very confident in the opinion that the mines of Australia come far short of those of California in their prospects for permanence. This assertion is true of her placers, and most emphatically so of her quartz mines. The quartz mining interest of California, which is yet in its earliest infancy, is destined to exceed, in both extent and richness, those of any other country of the globe.

IMMENSE SULPHUR PRODUCT IN MEXICO.

According to the Mexican papers, that country is possessed of a now unimproved source of wealth which may be made to yield great pecuniary results. The volcano of Popocatapelt, or Smoky Mountain, as it is called in the Indian tongue, yields an inexhaustible amount of pure sulphur, which is springing up every day in infinite abundance from its bowels. The United States, it is said, consumes annually, in its manufactures, sulphuric acid to the amount of eighteen or twenty millions of dollars. Great Britain and France probably each consume an equal amount. The present source of supply for this immense consumption is Mount Vesuvius, and the cost of the article in American or English markets is about $50 per ton. It is averred that the gatherers of sulphur from Vesuvius would be unable to compete with the Mexican product from Popocatapelt, for the reason that their sulphur is amalgamated with an infinity of substances, which involve great expense to separate; and the supply in Vesuvius is limited, while that of Popocatapelt would find little diminution in the labor of a century. The ore, too, it is said, can be obtained with great facility, and only a little energy and enterprise are needed to secure a golden harvest. In this view of the case, the trade in sulphur, which might be made to yield a sum amounting to thirty or fifty millions yearly, is a prize which the Mexican people would be unwise to let slip.

MANUFACTURE OF PAPER.

It is stated that a French chemist has invented a new method of bleaching paper pulp, by immersing the pulp in a solution of bleaching liquor made by saturating chloride of lime in water and using the clear liquor, and then passing carbonic acid through it. It is said to be an improved method of bleaching both pulp and textile fabrics. The process for sizing paper, invented by Dr. Macadam, of Glasgow, is also thought to be very valuable. It consists in the partial or total substitution of aqueous solutions of single sulphates, or of other binary compounds, for the double sulphate of potash and alumina known by the name of alum, usually employed according to the system of manufacture hitherto. The acid best suited for this purpose is sulphuric acid, and is employed in quantity sufficient for the neutralization of the whole, or a part of the alkali of the resin size which is used.

CANADIAN MINING REGULATIONS.

Unlike most other countries on the globe, Canada strives to prohibit, instead of promote the extraction of her mineral wealth. The "Order in Council" of September, 1853, although an improvement on the former code, requires a prospector to pay into the Crown Land Department 25 Canadian pounds, or $100, for a privilege to explore six months, and requires him to locate a spot 40 chains in front by 100 in depth; and, until he completes the purchase, he shall not fell or remove any timber, nor carry off any minerals, except as specimens. The Toronto *Globe* affirms that where the United States possess one mile of mining country along Lake Superior, Canada possesses ten, the north shores of Lake Huron and Superior included, and complains with justice at the restrictions imposed on the enterprise of her citizens by these regulations.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

PERSONAL EXPENDITURE.

[BY BEN. CASSEDAY, ESQ., EDITOR OF LOUISVILLE COMMERCIAL REVIEW.]

The progress of luxury in modern times is a subject which affords food for much thought. We do not value as we ought the luxuries which surround us on every side. Time was when anything above or beyond the simple necessities of life was attainable only by the very rich or by the very powerful. Those things which but a few years ago were luxuries, beyond the desire of men in ordinary circumstances, are now so easy of attainment that they have become necessities. *Taste*, in place of being, as heretofore, confined to the gratification of the few, has become a necessity of the many. Straw and rushes sufficed to cover the palace floors of England's greatest queen, while now the proudest gems of art are reproduced and adapted to the feet of the humblest sovereign of the modern republic. With three hundred and sixty-five dresses in her wardrobe, this very queen was not only content with, but even proud of a single pair of silk stockings, while a lady of modern times would consider herself badly used if she could not exhibit (to her female friends, of course) a dozen pairs of the very articles so prized by the virgin queen. The chairs that were used to adorn the palaces of nobles are now too poor for the cottages of the humble.

The world has so progressed that the luxuries of a hundred years ago are the necessities of to-day. Democracy has revolutionized the world. It has, as Willis says, "lifted the veil, and opened an earthly paradise to the long-toiling and ever-forgotten million. The home of every active, upright, intelligent American, may be brightened by those luxuries which, by the magic workings of modern machinery, have been brought within the common reach. The progress of art and taste is electric in our age, and inventions for multiplying whatever exalts or embellishes civilized life, outstrip the wildest imagination. This is an age of luxury and of peace to us on this untroubled side of the earth. It may well be; for the olive is growing in our New World, while the flames of war are lighted in the Old. And here is a nation of workingmen walking on a continent of gold."

The facilities afforded to all classes for the enjoyment of luxuries, may speak well for the progress of the country; but its effect upon those who are supposed to derive benefit from these facilities, is far from productive of good.

The ease with which luxury is attained, and the great temptations to its indulgence, form one of the most prominent reasons for those pecuniary difficulties which from time to time beset this country. Every man feels that it is his privilege to enjoy, to the fullest extent, all those amenities of life which money can purchase. Nor is this the ultimate difficulty. Men conceive, that in proportion as they surround themselves with articles of taste and *vertu*, they are acquiring social considerations for themselves and for their families. Hence there is a strong desire to sacrifice real comfort and enjoyment to a taste for display and exhibition. The prevalence of this feeling is well known to dealers in articles of luxury, and every exertion is employed by them to foster and increase this ridiculous desire. Mistaken notions of taste induce the wish to attain striking effects in the furniture of our houses, and in dress and equipage. The man in moderate circumstances, who is possessed of really correct and refined taste, can accomplish a higher degree of comfort, and make a "better show" to his friends, on a little money judiciously expended, than the unrefined man of fortune can with all his lavish expenditure in gewgaws and brilliancy. But there seems to exist among men of moderate means less desire to obey the dictates of taste, than blindly to follow the decrees of fashion. In furnishing a house, for example, the man of moderate means seems to forget that his small windows and low ceilings will not bear the abundant drapery and elegant paraphernalia which is entirely in keeping with the huge casements and lofty rooms of his neighbor. The voluptuous sofa or inviting easy chair, which fashion has pronounced perfect, is but an addition to the parlor of one man—it is an obstruction to the comfort of another. The divan, which is utterly useless and ridiculous in the house of the man whose life is not sacrificed to ostentatious display, to *fetes* and routs, is a tasteful and appropriate ornament to the *salon* of the woman of fashion.

But mediocracy in wealth emulates the example of those who claim to be millionaires, and, by reckless expenditure and eagerness for display, seeks to get beyond the position in which real comfort and real honor exists, and to attain that in which a feverish thirst for the open-mouthed admiration of the gaping crowd takes the place of a desire, either for happiness or for the approbation of good men. In this lies one grievous fault of our American society. Wealth has such a *prestige*, and obtains such influence, that to be or to seem possessed of it is the ambition of all. A comfortable competence is despised, and men who have already obtained it are ready to peril what they have gained, merely for the *eclat* of being called wealthy. Those who are content to live within their means, to apply themselves to procuring real comforts and providing homes for *themselves*, irrespective of their neighbors, are very few in this country. In Europe there are a large number of persons who have learned the sublime philosophy of the Chinaman, who, on meeting a mandarin loaded with jewels, bowed low, thanking him for his kindness. "Why do you thank me, my good man," said the proud mandarin, "I have rendered you no service?" "I thank your excellency for your jewels." "But my jewels are not for you." "They are for me, since I enjoy them more than you, for I see their brilliancy, while you but carry them that I may delight my eyes in looking at them." John Chinaman's answer carries with it a wholesome lesson, and one worthy of remembrance. The slaves to display and fashion do but carry their gewgaws that other men may enjoy their lustre. True happiness is found, and sensible philosophy displayed, in making

one's home comfortable, and in providing what will gratify our own tastes and satisfy our own wishes, irrespective of any desire to impress those around us with false ideas of our munificence in expenditure or of our capacity for display. To do or to desire more than this is not merely foolish, but it is criminal; and the history of our country will show that our prosperity as a nation depends upon our observance of propriety in our personal expenditures.

THE FANCY FUR TRADE.

The fancy fur trade of this country, which centers in New York, is, according to the *Journal of Commerce*, one of increasing importance. By reference to the custom-house books, it appears that the total importations of "furs" in 1856, up to the present time, is not less than $1,928,000, while for the whole of last year the amount was not quite $1,500,000. This represents the foreign cost of the goods, to which must be added freight and other charges, besides a duty of 20 per cent for dressed and 10 for undressed, except furs from the British North American Provinces, free by the reciprocity treaty, which would increase the valuation about 33 per cent. By far the larger portion of these are "fancy," or such as are worn by ladies. We find, on particular inquiry, that the trade of the city of New York, wholesale and retail, in this class of furs, will this year reach something like $1,375,000, which much exceeds the business of any former year.

The principal dealers throughout the country, excepting the Eastern States, have laid in their stock for the winter in September, and are busily engaged in making them up, preparatory to the opening of the retail trade. The local business is divided as follows, as nearly as can be calculated:—Amount of sales in Maiden Lane, exclusive of C. G. Gunther & Sons, (whose sales this year are about $500,000, but being principally to other local traders, should not at all be included,) $300,000; in Water-street, over $450,000; in Broadway, $225,000. There are at least ten firms that will do a business of $50,000 or upward; and five others that range from $20,000 to $50,000, their stock being uncommonly large. The trade in hatters' furs and buffalo robes is entirely distinct.

The styles observed do not vary much from those of 1855, but it is noticed that American furs, such as the mink and opossum, are much more generally worn—the increase in the sale of fancy furs being of this description. The effect has been to enhance the value of American furs beyond precedent. Mink, which formerly commanded from 30 to 50 cents, is readily bought up by our furriers at $3 50 to $4; ordinary Western, which are worth 25 or 30 cents, now bring $2 50; other furs, too, are much dearer. Furs are now the fashion, and fashion is quite independent even of common sense. An example was afforded last winter. With the mercury down to zero, and heavy fur capes and cuffs in vogue, it was still fashionable to wear open sleeves measuring from two feet to twenty-eight inches in circumference, through which the wind whistled *ad libitum*. Furriers formerly desired cold weather, but this is a subject respecting which they are now indifferent.

There are low-priced furs as well as high-priced—a set of coney, or colored rabbit, selling for $1 50, while "crown," or Russian sable, sometimes reach $1,500. The latter are called crown sable, because they, as well as the ermine, are chiefly monopolized by the Russian government for the use of the royal family and nobility. Notwithstanding, a considerable number are annually brought to the

Leipsic Fair by Jewish traders, who obtain them from exiles in the mountains of Siberia. Last spring and summer a very large quantity of choice furs was received here from the Russian American Company at Sitka, who chose to make this a market, rather than encounter the hazards of war by sending them to Europe.

Mr. Stone, the commercial editor of the *Journal of Commerce*, recently saw a box of Russian sable, not more than three feet long, and of ordinary proportions, of camphor-wood, which contained 400 small skins, bearing the seal of the Russian government, valued at fourteen thousand dollars. Some of the skins cost $51 or $52 each. The latter are almost black, and on that account bring fabulous prices. A lower grade of inferior color, are worth $28, and some not more than $16. These are commonly sold at a profit of 30 or 33 per cent. Sixteen or eighteen skins are required to make a full-size cape, so that the cost of a choice-quality garment of this description would be about nine hundred dollars. Adding the cost of making and the profit, such an article could not be procured for much less than fourteen hundred dollars. Hudson's Bay sable cost this year about $25 per skin. It may be mentioned that our large furriers employ no other means to preserve their goods from insects except beating them every three or four weeks.

RISING IN THE WORLD.

Experience continually contradicts the notion that a poor young man cannot rise. If we look over the list of rich men in Philadelphia, says the *Ledger*, we find that nearly all of them began life worth little or nothing. GIRARD was a poor boy. The late Mr. RIDGWAY went to Philadelphia a country lad, almost penniless. What is true of Philadelphia is true, also, of New York and Boston. ASTOR began with nothing. ABBOTT LAWRENCE had only a pair of stout hands, a willing heart, and a good character, for his original capital. To any person familiar with the millionaires of the United States, a score of similar examples will occur. On the other hand, the sons of rich men, who began life with the capital which so many poor young men covet, frequently die beggars. It would probably not be going too far to say that a large majority of such moneyed individuals either fail outright or gradually eat up the capital with which they commenced their career. And the reason is plain. Brought up in expensive habits, they spend entirely too much. Educated with high notions of personal importance, they will not, as they phrase it, "stoop" to hard work. Is it astonishing, therefore, that they are passed in the race of life by others with less capital originally, but more energy, thrift, and industry? for these virtues, after all, are worth more than money. They make money, in fact. Nay, after it is made, they enable the possessor to keep it, which most rich men pronounce to be more difficult than the making. The young man who begins life with a resolution always to lay by part of his income is sure, even without extraordinary ability, gradually to acquire a sufficiency, especially as habits of economy, which the resolution renders necessary, will make that a competence for him which would be quite insufficient for an extravagant person. It is really what we save, even more than what we make, which leads us to fortune. He who enlarges his expenses as fast as his earnings increase must always be poor, no matter what his abilities. And content may be had on comparatively little. It is not in luxurious living that men find real happiness.

THE USES OF ASTRONOMY TO COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION.

We extract from the eloquent and beautiful oration, delivered at Albany on the 29th of August, 1856, by the Hon. EDWARD EVERETT, a passage in which he alludes to the services rendered to navigation by astronomical science :—

It is mainly owing to the results of astronomical observation that modern commerce has attained such a vast expansion, compared with that of the ancient world. I have already reminded you that accurate ideas in this respect contributed materially to the conception in the mind of Columbus of his immortal enterprise, and to the practical success with which it was conducted. It was mainly his skill in the use of astronomical instruments, imperfect as they were, which enabled him, in spite of the bewildering variation of the compass, to find his way across the ocean.

With the progress, or the true system of the universe toward general adoption, the problem of finding the longitude at sea presented itself. This was the avowed object of the foundation of the Observatory at Greenwich, (Grant's Physical Astronomy, p. 460 ;) and no one object has received more of the attention of astronomers than those investigations of the lunar theory, on which the requisite tables of the navigator are founded. The pathways of the ocean are marked out in the sky above. The eternal lights of the heavens are the only Pharos whose beams never fail—which no tempest can shake from its foundation. Within my recollection, it was deemed a necessary qualification for the master and mate of a merchant-ship, and even for a prime hand, to be able to "work a lunar," as it was called. The improvements in the chronometer have in practice, to a great extent, superseded this laborious operation ; but observation remains, and unquestionably will forever remain, the only dependence for ascertaining the ship's time and deducing the longitude from the comparison of that time with the chronometer.

It may, perhaps, be thought that astronomical science is brought already to such a state of perfection, that nothing more is to be desired, or at least, that nothing more is attainable, in reference to such practical applications as I have described. This, however, is an idea which generous minds will reject, in this as in every other department of human knowledge. In astronomy, as in everything else, the discoveries already made, theoretical or practical, instead of exhausting the science, or putting a limit to its advancement, do but furnish the means and instruments of further progress. I have no doubt we live on the verge of discoveries and inventions in every department as brilliant as any that have ever been made ; that there are new truths, new facts, ready to start into recognition on every side ; and it seems to me there never was an age since the dawn of time, when men ought to be less disposed to rest satisfied with the progress already made than the age in which we live ; for there never was an age more distinguished for ingenious research, for novel result, and bold generalization.

That no further improvement is desirable in the means and methods of ascertaining the ship's place at sea, no one, I think, will from experience be disposed to assert. The last time I crossed the Atlantic, I walked the quarter-deck with the officer in charge of the noble vessel, on one occasion, when we were driving along before a leading breeze and under a head of steam, beneath a starless sky at midnight, at the rate certainly of ten or eleven miles an hour. There is something sublime, but approaching the terrible, in such a scene—the rayless gloom, the midnight chill, the awful swell of the deep, the dismal moan of the wind through the rigging, the all but volcanic fires within the hold of the ship—I scarce know an occasion in ordinary life in which a reflecting mind feels more keenly its hopeless dependence on irrational forces beyond its own control. I asked my companion how nearly he could determine his ship's place at sea under favorable circumstances. Theoretically, he answered, I think within a mile ; practically and usually, within three or four.

My next question was, How near do you think we may be to Cape Race—that dangerous headland which pushes its iron-bound, unlighted bastions from the shore of Newfoundland far into the Atlantic—first land-fall to the homeward-

bound American vessel? We must, said he, by our last observations and reckoning, be within three or four miles of Cape Race. A comparison of these two remarks, under the circumstances in which we were placed at the moment, brought my mind to the conclusion that it is greatly to be wished that the means should be discovered of finding the ship's place more accurately, or that navigators would give Cape Race a little wider berth. But I do not remember that one of the steam-packets between England and America was ever lost on that formidable point.

It appears to me by no means unlikely that, with the improvement of instrumental power, and of the means of ascertaining the ship's time with exactness, as great an advance beyond the present state of art and science in finding a ship's place at sea may take place, as was effected by the invention of the reflecting quadrant, the calculation of lunar tables, and the improved construction of chronometers.

In the wonderful versatility of the human mind, the improvement, when made, will very probably be made by paths where it is least expected. The great inducement of Mr. Babbage to attempt the construction of an engine, by which astronomical tables could be calculated and even printed by mechanical means, and with entire accuracy, was the errors in the requisite tables. Nineteen such errors, in point of fact, were discovered in an edition of Taylor's logarithms printed in 1796; some of which might have led to the most dangerous results in calculating a ship's place. These nineteen errors (of which one only was an error of the press) were pointed out in the *Nautical Almanac* for 1832. In one of these *errata* the seat of the error was stated to be in cosine of 14° 18′ 3″. Subsequent examination showed that there was an error of one second in this correction, and accordingly in the *Nautical Almanac* of the next year a new correction was necessary. But in making the new correction of one second, a new error was committed of ten degrees. Instead of cosine 14° 18′ 2″, the correction was printed cosine 4° 18′ 2″, making it still necessary, in some future edition of the *Nautical Almanac*, to insert an *erratum* in an *erratum* of the *errata* in Taylor's logarithms. (*Edinburgh Review*, vol. lix., 282.)

In the hope of obviating the possibility of such errors, Mr. Babbage projected his calculating—or, as he prefers to call it, his difference machine. Although this extraordinary undertaking has been arrested in consequence of the enormous expense attending its execution, enough has been achieved to show the mechanical possibility of constructing an engine of this kind, and even one of far higher powers, of which Mr. Babbage has matured the conception, devised the notation, and executed the drawings—themselves an imperishable monument of the genius of the author.

WHEN HAVE WE GOT ENOUGH? THE BRIG SOLD.

When has a man got enough? Never, till he gets a little more. A very good story of old embargo times and the war of 1812, was told us the other day. Under the impulse of the removal of embargo, there was a sudden rise in the value of property, and such a demand for it that merchandise was sometimes carried off from vessels before the owners arrived at their place of business; and the parties taking it came in afterwards to say that they were at the owners' mercy, and must pay what they chose to ask. A brig was lying at Boston harbor, which had come up from Plymouth just before the embargo was laid, fit for sea. The Plymouth owner thought it was a good time to sell the brig, and sent up his son for the purpose, telling him to demand eight thousand dollars for her, and not take less than six. John went to Boston, found how things stood, sold the brig in a moment, and hurried home, elated with his bargain. As he neared the house, he saw the old man marching up and down the piazza, and presently he rushed out to meet his son and hear the result of the sale.

"Have you sold the brig, John?

"Yes, father."

"For how much, John?"

"For ten thousand dollars!"

"Ten thousand dollars!" cried the old man, with staring eyes, at hearing a price more than double what the vessel cost. "Ten thousand dollars! I'll bet you've sold her to some swindler, who don't care what the price is, and never means to pay his notes."

"Notes, did you say, father? Why, there are no notes in the case. I got the money and put it in the bank. Draw, and you will get it."

The old gentleman's excitement was suddenly cooled, and as the ruling passion rose in its place, he said:—

"I say, John, could'nt you have got a *leetle more*?

DESPICABLE TRICKS IN TRADE.

We cut from the Boston *Herald* a "leader," with the above title. The writer is understood to be a merchant of that city, and is, of course, cognizant of the "tricks in trade" to which he alludes. Knavery in trade is not confined by sectional or geographical boundaries:—

It has been remarked that, if people would exercise as much ingenuity and persistency in well doing as they do in a career of crime, many who now drag out a wretched existence in the prisons would be ornaments to society, benefactors of their race, and the honorable of the earth. It is a lamentable fact that some of the most active and original minds are among the most hardened and desperate criminals; that the intellect misdirected, which is shut up between stone walls, might have been a blessing and a treasure to the world, had it been rightly directed. This tendency to evil which is manifested by so many, is one of the inexplicabilities which remains for modern philosophy to elucidate. The doctrine of total depravity has been strengthened by it, but we are loth to receive that solution. Certain it is, however, that too many among us act upon the proverb—"Stolen waters are sweet, and bread eaten in secret is pleasant."

A celebrated literary character of the last century, who was extravagantly fond of pork, was heard to express a wish that he was a Jew. "How so?" asked a friend, "you would then be obliged to forego your favorite meat." "Ah!" returned the gourmand, "I should have the pleasure of eating pork and sinning at the same time." This appears to be the principle—the pleasure of sinning, which governs not a few traders in our city.

A class of traders amongst us have conducted their business upon a systematic course of knavery. They have employed the meanest artifices, the basest tricks, lying and robbery, to entrap and defraud their customers. The persons usually selected by these dishonorable traffickers are women, young girls who are alone. The trade which has become dishonorably conspicuous in this respect is the retail dry goods business. The course pursued is, when a customer enters who appears to be one that can be imposed upon with impunity, to force upon her attention various articles. They know that a natural curiosity will induce the young lady to examine the goods, and even to price them; but having no disposition to purchase, and having ordered the articles she was in search of, she finds, when she turns to leave, that she is restrained. A demand is made upon her for the price of a cloak, a dress, or what not. The lady assures the clerk she did not purchase; she is rudely contradicted, and subjected to insults and outrages. Astonished and alarmed at the rudeness and scandalous treatment she is subjected to, she hardly knows what she says or does, and, in a majority of cases, submits to be robbed, to escape from the ruffianly clutches into which she has fallen.

Another very common and successful trick is to show a sample of superior quality at a fair price, and then to cut off and bundle up a very inferior article. If the customer complains on her return home, and a friend undertakes her cause, the trader denies the fact urged against him, and calls his clerks to corroborate him. There is no evidence, except the customer's, which is not sufficient to prove the fraud, and the rascals usually escape the punishment due to their crimes.

Within three years past we have been informed of more than one hundred cases of outrage by dry goods dealers in various parts of the city, some of which

were of a peculiarly aggravated nature. We have published accounts of the transactions. so far as we could do so with safety. If there is not evidence enough to convict a swindler in a court, the newspaper proprietor is not justified in law, in calling a man a swindler, and we have not therefore exposed the names which have been placed in our possession.

As one means of security against insult and thieving, it is well for ladies to go in couples when they go shopping. The rascals know that two witnesses to an act are too many for them, and they rarely attempt personal detention under such circumstances. But they will still, notwithstanding two are together, come the other dodge of showing superior goods and doing up an inferior article. To guard against this trick, it is well always to take a bill, describing the goods purchased, and the bill will be evidence against the shopkeeper, if he is dishonest.

Once in a while these sharp dealers make a great mistake, and get hold of the wrong customer. This was the case with a Washington-street merchant. The lady who was outraged had friends who knew their rights and dared maintain them. The merchant was brought before the court, the charge against him fully proved, and he has not only had to pay $325 and costs, but he has had the privilege—if he esteems it as such—of free advertising in all the newspapers. There is not a lady within a circuit of fifty miles of Boston but knows his shop. He will from henceforth, we trust, learn that honesty and fair dealing is the best policy.

This subject suggests to us some other detestable and annoying practices that obtain in the trading community, which we will endeavor to illustrate in another article.

SCRIPTURE PRICES.

Abraham bought a piece of land for a burying-place. He paid 400 shekels of silver. The lowest sum at which a shekel is estimated is two shillings and three pence. This would make about $200 for the burying-place. In Solomon's time it is mentioned that the price of a chariot from Egypt was 600 shekels of silver (1 Kings, x., 29.) This would be about $250. The price of a horse was 150 shekels, or some $72. The best horses of that age were found in Egypt. The Egyptians trained them well, and they were capable of important services. King Solomon, in a valuable chariot, drawn by two or four of the horses, made as showy and as dignified an appearance perhaps as any princes have since.

COFFEE—HOW TO TEST IT SCIENTIFICALLY.

At a recent meeting of the British Association of Science, Mr. Horseley called attention to the use of bi-chromate of potash, in analyzing adulterated samples of coffee. With diluted solutions of pure coffee, this salt produces an intense deep porter-brown coloration, whilst upon decoctions of chicory no effect is produced. He advised the following procedure: Take equal parts of chicory and coffee, and decoct them in different quantities of water; filter, bottle, and label the liquids. Take a teaspoonful of the chicory, and dilute it till it is of a brown sherry color; boil it in a porcelain dish, with a fragment of crystalized bi-chrome. The color will be scarcely deepened. If a similarly diluted solution of coffee is thus treated, a deep-brown tinge is obtained. By operating with mixed liquids a scale of colors may be obtained indicating the properties of the two substances. If a few grains of the sulphate of copper be added, both decoctions yield a precipitate—that from chicory being a clay-yellow, and that from coffee a sepia-brown. Mixed decoctions yield intermediate tints.

HOW BOSTON MERCHANTS ENJOY THEMSELVES.

The editor of the Barnstable *Patriot* had an opportunity of visiting the country mansion of SAMUEL HOOPER, at Cotuit Point. The *Patriot* says:—

"This is truly one of the most quiet, cool, and refreshing places for a summer home, which we have seen for a long time. The residence is upon a bold shore, surrounded with foliage, and looks out upon one of the most beautiful bays in the country. Here the man of business, tired of the pressing cares and never-ceasing anxieties of mercantile life, retires for repose to enjoy rural life independently, and to make himself happy with his accomplished lady and his guests. He commands his own time, is free from interruption, and asks himself how he can best take comfort. Mercantile industry and ability have commanded a fortune, and wise is he who enjoys the years as they pass. Too many among the merchant princes of Boston live to waste their energies, health, and strength, in hoarding up dollar upon dollar, until, with wasted health and hired friends, they finally discover their mistake of having made a fortune for others only to enjoy. Not so with Mr. Hooper. Like a sensible man, he visits Cape Cod and buys a summer home, improves and beautifies it to his taste, enjoys the blessings of quiet domestic life, contributes to the enjoyment and prosperity of the village chosen as his retreat, and gathers his friends around him at his pleasure."

POETRY OF COMMERCE.

The Hon. EDWARD EVERETT, whose brilliant scholarship gives a golden tinge of poetry to everything it touches, thus speaks of commerce in his speech at the Peabody testimonial:—

Track its history for a moment from the earliest period. In the infancy of the world its caravans, like gigantic silkworms, went creeping though the arid wastes of Asia and Africa with their infinitesimal legs, and bound the human family together in those vast regions as they bind it together now. Its colonial establishments scattered the Grecian culture all round the shores of the Mediterranean, and carrried the adventurers of Tyre and Carthage to the north of Europe and the south of Africa. The walled cities of the middle ages prevented the arts and refinements of life from being trampled out of existence under the iron heel of the feudal powers. The Hanse Towns were the bulwark of liberty and property in the north and west of Europe for ages. The germ of the representative system sprang from the municipal franchises of the boroughs. At the revival of letters, the merchant princes of Florence received the fugitive art of Greece into their palaces. The spirit of commercial adventure produced that movement in the fifteenth century which carried Columbus to America, and Vasco di Gama around the Cape of Good Hope.

The deep foundation of the modern system of international laws were laid in interests and rights of commerce, and the necessity of protecting them. Commerce sprinkled the treasures of the newly-found Indies throughout the western nations; it nerved the arm of civil and religious liberty in the Protestant world—it gradually carried the colonial system of Europe to the ends of the earth, and with it the elements of future independent, civilized, republican governments. But why should we dwell on the past? What is it that gives vigor to the civilization of the present day but the world-wide extension of commercial intercourse, by which all the products of the earth and of the ocean, of the soil, the mine, of the loom, of the forge, of bounteous nature, creative art, and untiring industry, are brought by the agencies of commerce into the universal market of demand and supply? No matter in what region a desirable product is bestowed on man by a liberal Providence, or fabricated by human skill; it may clothe the hills of China with its fragrant foliage; it may glitter in the golden sands of California; it may wallow in the depths of the Arctic seas; it may ripen and whiten in the fertile plains of the sunny South; it may spring forth from the flying shuttles of Manchester in England or Manchester in America—the great world magnate of commerce attracts it alike, and gathers it all up for the service of man.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Elements of Mercantile Law.* By THEOPHILUS PARSONS, LL. D., Dana Professor of Law in Harvard University. 8vo., pp. 616. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

We cannot speak too strongly of the value to mercantile men of works which, like this, explain and illustrate the principles upon which business should be conducted. Your self-called practical man, who says, "Oh, fudge! do your business according to common sense—that is better than any books," is right in his maxim, but wrong in practical conclusion. He does not know that the Law Merchant is little more than the condensed and assorted common sense of business men from the time when modern commerce began to this day; that the maxims of mercantile law contain all the wisdom of the individual notions of whole generations of business men, sifted by experience, tried by long use, approved by the judicial voices of England and America, and gathered up by learning for the instruction and equipment of business men to come. Oh! most true it is that common sense is better than books. But where shall we find the most and the best of common sense? In the individual head of him who thinks little of any other man's thinking? or in that reservoir to which thinking men, active men, experienced men have for so many years been contributing? This volume—a good book for the lawyer—is a capital book for the merchant. We do not think any young man on the threshold of business can read this volume carefully and remember what he reads—he cannot help understanding it—without adding 25 per cent to the value of his services in any commercial employment.

2.—*The Hills of the Shatemuc.* By the author of the "Wide, Wide World." 12mo., pp. 516. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

A charming book, written in the same earnest tone which characterized the other works by the same author. This is a domestic tale, with all the lights and shades of social life; there are no very strong scenes or stirring incidents, but variety enough to keep an unflagging interest throughout its pages. The story shows how much can be gained by energy and perseverance, with the love of knowledge, by those whose lot in life is a perpetual struggle in the attainment. We admire the self-sacrifice exhibited in the "farmer's family," to enable the two sons to reach the objects so earnestly sought. Winthrop's success is what all will anticipate. The story is very life-like, and may represent the experience of many a poor boy, who has risen to eminence in after life through a determined and earnest purpose. All the scenes and characters are well sustained.

3.—*Widdifield's New Cook-Book;* or, Practical Receipts for the Housewife. Comprising all the Popular and Approved Methods for Cooking, etc. 12mo., pp. 410. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson.

This appears to be a valuable cook-book, inasmuch as it is the experience of one who understands the art of cookery, and has tested the receipts which she recommends. Most of the treatises on this subject are made by incompetent persons, who never have tried the methods presented. The receipts here seem to be entirely practical and economical, and not too elaborate for daily use.

4.—*A History of the Struggle for Slavery Extension or Restriction in the United States,* from the Declaration of Independence to the Present Day. By HORACE GREELEY. 8vo., pp. 164. New York: Dix, Edwards & Co.

This volume, though designed for the Presidential campaign of 1856, will be interesting as a book of reference on the slavery question. It has been compiled and condensed from the journals of Congress and other official records, and shows the vote by yeas and nays in the most important pro-slavery and anti-slavery divisions in either house of Congress. It is divided into fourteen parts, commencing with Slavery in the Colonies, and ending with the Kansas-Nebraska Struggle.

5.—*Live and Learn*; a Guide for all who wish to Speak and Write correctly; particularly intended as a Book of Reference for the Solution of all Difficulties connected with Grammar, Composition, Punctuation, etc., etc. With Explanations of Latin and French Words and Phrases of frequent Occurrence in Newspapers, Reviews, Periodicals, and Books in general; containing Examples of one thousand Mistakes of daily Occurrence in Speaking, Writing, and Pronunciation; together with detailed Instructions for Writing for the Press, and Forms of Articles in the various Departments of Newspaper Literature. 12mo., pp. 213. New York: Garrett & Co.

A very useful little volume, containing a fund of information for those who wish to speak and write correctly.

6.—*Minnesota and its Resources.* To which are appended Camp-Fire Sketches, or Notes of a Trip from St. Paul to Pembina and Selkirk Settlement on the Red River of the North. By J. Wesley Bond. 12mo., pp. 412. Chicago: Keen & Lee. New York: Fowlers & Wells.

A valuable book for the emigrant and all who desire information concerning the climate, soil, agricultural advantages, resources, and trades of Minnesota. A very few years since and Minnesota was a wilderness, uninhabited save by Indians and a few white traders. It is now a flourishing territory with growing towns, some of which are destined to become of great importance. The volume contains five or six illustrations.

7.—*Iowa as it is in* 1856; a Gazetteer for Citizens and a Hand-Book for Immigrants, embracing a full Description of the State of Iowa. Her Agricultural, Mineralogical, and Geological Character, her Water Courses, Timber Lands, Soil, and Climate; the various Railroad Lines being Built, and those Projected, with the Distance of each; the Number and Condition of Churches and Schools in each County; Population and Business Statistics of the most Important Cities and Towns; information for the Immigrant respecting the Selection, Entry, and Cultivation of Prairie Soil; a List of unentered Lands in the State, &c. With Numerous Illustrations. By N. Howe Parker. 12mo., pp. 264. Chicago: Keen & Lee. New York: Fowlers & Wells.

The copious title-page quoted above tells us of most of the contents of this work. It contains, too, a fine large map of the prosperous State of Iowa.

8.—*Lectures on the Evidences of Christianity before the Lowell Institute, January,* 1844. By Mark Hopkins, D. D., President of Williams College. 8vo., pp. 385. Boston: J. R. Marvin.

The founder of these lectures was a merchant of Boston, and the result of his bequest has been the delivery, from year to year, by some of the most eminent scholars, divines, and poets of America, of a series of lectures fostering literature, art, and science, of a very high order of merit. The volume before us contains twelve lectures, in which the lecturer discusses with his usual ability the evidence resulting from a comparison of Christianity in its relations to nature and to man. The learned lecturer judged wisely in giving prominence to the internal evidences, and his reasoning and arguments will doubtless carry conviction to many minds, especially to such as, from education or habits of thought, are predisposed to such a result.

9.—*Hand-Book of American Literature: Historical, Biographical, and Critical.* 12mo., pp. 316. Philadelphia: Lippincott & Co.

This appears to be a reprint of an English book. The compiler, for it is little more than a compilation, attempts to describe the various features of American literature. The work is divided into two periods—that is, from 1620 to 1800 as the first, and from 1800 to 1855 as the second. The author has evidently drawn largely from the labors of Mr. Griswold, and borrowed critical opinions from the North American Review and other works. It is said that a little knowledge is a dangerous thing. We don't believe it, for we consider this Hand-Book as being, on the whole, a very clever book for literary reference.

10.—*Life in Brazil;* or a Journal of a Visit to the Land of the Cocoa and the Palm. With an Appendix, containing illustrations of Ancient South American Arts, in recently discovered Implements and Products of Domestic Industry, and works in Stone, Pottery, Gold, Silver, Bronze, &c. By THOMAS EWBANKS. 8vo., pp. 458. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Ewbanks considers Romanism, as it exists in Brazil and South America generally, as a barrier to progress, compared to which. he thinks other obstacles are small. On this as every other question, there are doubtless those who think differently. But aside from Church affairs, Mr. Ewbanks has noticed almost everything of general as well as special interest, including the arts, manners, customs, buildings, trades, tools, pottery, food, stores, ornaments, agricultural products, climate, population, &c. The volume is copiously illustrated, with more than one hundred engravings.

11.—*The Sportsman's Vade Mecum.* By DINKS. Containing full Instructions in all that relates to the Breeding, Rearing, Breaking, Kennelling, and Conditioning of Dogs; together with numerous valuable Recipes for the Treatment of the various Diseases to which the Canine Race is subject; as also a few Remarks on Guns, their Loading and Carriage; and Dogs—their Management; being a new Plan of treating the Animal, based upon consideration of his Natural Temperament, illustrated by numerous Engravings, depicting the Character and Position of the Dog, when suffering Disease. Designed expressly for the use of Sportsmen. New Revised Edition. By EDWARD MAYHEW, M. R. C. V. S. Edited by FRANK FORRESTER, author of "Field Sports," "Fish and Fishing," &c. 12mo., pp. 458. New York: Stringer & Townsend.

The copious title-page so fully describes the contents and character of this work, that we are saved the necessity, as well as deprived of the pleasure, of saying more than that it is a book that will interest the select admirers of the canine race.

12.—*Knowledge is Power;* a View of the Productive Forces of Modern Society, and the Results of Labor, Capital and Skill. By CHARLES KNIGHT. Revised and Edited by DAVID A. WELLS, A. M., Editor of the "Annual Scientific Discovery," "Year Book of Agriculture,' "Famihar Science," &c. 12mo., pp. 502. Boston: Gould and Lincoln.

Mr. Charles Knight, an eminent London publisher, and the author of this work, is well known as the editor of the "Penny Encyclopedia Magazine," "The Results of Machinery," and other useful and popular works. Mr. Knight presents, in a clear and condensed form, the nature and variety of the various productive forces of modern society, together with the results which have been attained by the union of labor, capital, and skill. The work is illustrated by examples and statistics, derived in great part from the history of the civilization and progress of the Anglo-Saxon races, and their present condition. The American editor has enhanced the value of the book by many interesting additions.

13.—*Putnam's Library of Choice Stories.* "The Baked Head" and other tales. Now first collected, and forming the second volume of "Putnam's Story Library." 12mo., pp. 309. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

We noticed some months since the publication of the first volume of this series of "choice stories." Mr. Putnam, the editor of this collection, stands at the head of the trade as a man of refined literary taste and correct judgment. His declared design in these publications, and the initial volumes furnish abundant evidence of his ability to carry out that design, to present to the public in a form suitable for amusing and attractive reading, and for permanent library use, the best selections from the standard story literature of the English language. In the 309 pages of the present volume we have some fifteen stories, combining about every variety of style, which may be read when "closeness of attention is impossible, and the very idea of lengthened narrative oppressive." Each volume of the series is complete in itself.

14.—*The Life of George Washington.* By J. T. Headley, author of "Washington and his Generals," "Napoleon and his Marshals," "The Sacred Mountains, etc. 8vo., pp. 477. New York: Charles Scribner.

Washington Irving's Life of Washington, in three volumes, has been published during the last three months, that is, the third and last volume; and now we have another life in one volume by a well-known and popular writer, who informs us that the present work was written, and all but two or three chapters printed in Graham's Magazine, before Mr. Irving's work was even announced as about to be published. Mr. Headley popularizes the life of Washington to events and incidents connected with him and his movements, and this makes the work less voluminous than it would be if it embraced a more detailed history of current events. It seems that all General Putnam's papers were put into Mr. Headley's hands, which he says shed an entire new light on some of the most interesting events of the Revolution and movements of Washington. The work is written in the author's usual glowing and readable style, and we predict for it a wide popularity among the "million."

15.—*A Popular Ancient History.* By Matthew Bridges, Esq. 12mo., pp. 310. New York: D. & J. Sadlier & Co.

16.—*A Popular Modern History.* By Matthew Bridges, Esq. 12mo., pp. 565. New York: D. & J. Sadlier & Co.

The first of these volumes, "Ancient History," was drawn up as a companion to the last named. Each one, however, is a complete work in itself. The grand object of all sound history should be to set the simple truth before candid readers, that they may reason always from honest premises, and derive the largest amount of instruction in the most natural and agreeable manner. It is with such a view of the subject that Mr. Bridges undertook the compilation of these histories, which are designed not only for educational manuals but for general and popular reading. The author lays no claims to originality, but justly, we think, claims for his histories succinctness and comprehensiveness, and his books, we have no doubt, possess a fair share of accuracy, as much, at least, as the "uncertainties of history" will permit.

17.—*Typical Forms and Special Ends of Creation.* By Rev. James McGosh, LL. D., Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in Queen's University in Ireland, author of "the Method of the Divine Government, Physical and Moral," etc., and George Dickie, A. M., M. D., Professor of Natural History, same University, etc. 8vo., pp. 540. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

This work is based upon an article on Typical Forms from the pen of Dr. McGosh in the *British Review* for August, 1851, an article which Hugh Miller, an eminent naturalist, pronounced the most suggestive and ingenious which he ever perused. The whole subject is treated logically and systematically. In "book first," the principles of general order and special adaptation are explained; in the second, we have a co-ordinate series of facts, giving indications of combined order and adaptation throughout the various kingdoms of nature; and in the third, the interpretation of the facts disclosed is attempted. An appendix is added, containing a selected list of plants, illustrating associations of colors, and relations of form and color.

18.—*Empirical Psychology;* or the Human Mind as given in Consciousness. For the Use of Colleges and Academies. By Laurens P. Hickok, D. D., Union College, author of "Rational Psychology," "Moral Science," &c. New York: Ivison & Phinney.

The design of the author of this manual is to represent the human mind as it stands in the clear light of consciousness. The attempt is here made to find the human mind as it is, and all its leading facts as they combine to make a complete whole. The arrangement of the topics is systematic and clear, and the work seems to be well adapted to the wants of the class of persons for whom it was mainly intended.

19.—*The Age of Progress;* or a Panorama of Time. In Four Visions. By David A. Moore. 12mo., pp. 320. New York: Sheldon, Blakeman & Co.

Mr. Moore informs the reader at the outset that his book was "written with a pungent sense of existing social evils, and a sincere desire to contribute to their melioration." He claims it to be a genuine romance, a history, a poem, and, finally, not merely an essay, but more correctly a series of essays, upon different subjects. It is divided into four parts or "visions," as they are termed, viz.: the New Eden, the Overthrow of Slavery, the Trial of Belzebub, and the Triumph of Man. The dedication will give some idea of the genius of the author. It runs thus: "It is to all who sincerely acknowledge the General Brotherhood of Man, and who desire in their heart of hearts the elevation of the entire human race, and especially to all true American patriots, who at the present hour have a single eye to the future success and integrity of the American Union, and who can see in the prosperity of this nation the most efficient means of securing the welfare of universal humanity."

20.—*Tales of Sweden and the Norsemen.* 18mo., pp. 364. New York: Carter & Brothers.

There is in this volume six tales of Sweden, viz.: the Copper Mines, the Swan King, the Iron King, the Fall of the Hats and Caps, Perseverance, and the Three Pictures; and five tales of the Norsemen. The latter present a series of life pictures, taken from that eventful portion of time in which the Norwegian people were so closely connected, both by invasion and colonization, with Great Britain and Ireland. These tales are historical, and give some idea of the habits, manners, and customs of a barbarous people.

21.—*Africa's Mountain Valley;* or the Church in Regent's Town, West Africa. By the author of "Ministering Children." 18mo., pp. 259. New York: Carter & Brothers.

This little volume is based upon the Memoirs of the Rev. W. A. B. Johnson, published some three years since. The present work furnishes a consecutive history of the missionary labors at Regent's Town, in West Africa. It will interest the friends of Christian missions, and particularly those connected with the African race.

22.—*The Rise of the Dutch Republic;* a History. By John Lathrop Motley. In three large octavo volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Motley regards the rise and progress of the Dutch Republic as one of the leading events of modern times. He says in the clear and lucid preface to these volumes, that without the birth of this great commonwealth, the various historical phenomena of the 16th and following centuries must have either not existed, or presented themselves under essential modifications. It is evidently the work of many years of labor and research, and the author it appears studied all the important chroniclers and later historians, including Dutch, Flemish, French, Italian, Spanish, or German Catholic and Protestant, Monarchist and Republican, have we are assured, been consulted with equal sincerity; and we doubt not, from the high character of the author, with an earnest desire to arrive at the truth. This work must ever be regarded as a valuable contribution to the historical literature of the Anglo-Saxon race.

23.—*The Banished Son;* and other Stories of the Heart. By Mrs. Caroline Lee Hentz, author of "Love after Marriage," "Linda," "Rena," "Robert Graham," etc., etc. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson.

Mrs. Hentz has written much and well, and her tales and romances are well calculated, (according to that model of common sense, Mrs. Sarah J. Hale,) to increase our regard for the moral healthfulness of her mind, which in its flow has come to us in such purity of sentiment and expression. The present volume contains a collection of her minor tales, well calculated to inspire a true appreciation of the character and genius of the author.

24.—*The Golden Dagon;* or Up and Down the Irrawaddi. Being Passages of Adventure in the Burman Empire. By an AMERICAN. 18mo., pp. 312. New York: Dix, Edwards & Co.

A book of travels, abounding in descriptions of places and scenes, men and things, at once unique and graphic. It is one of the most readable books of its class we have met with in a long time.

25.—*The Life of Mary Jemison,* (Deh-he-wa-miss.) By JAMES E. SEARER. Fourth Edition. With Geographical and Explanatory Notes. 12mo., pp. 312. New York: Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

The life of a woman who was taken captive at the early age of thirteen years, and trained to the duties of the Indian female. She became imbued with their sentiments and habits. It is an exceedingly interesting piece of biography, connected, as it is, with the early history of the country.

26.—*The Martyr of Sumatra:* a Memoir of Henry Lyman. 12mo., pp. 437. New York: Carter & Brothers.

More than twenty years have elapsed since the subject of this memoir suffered a violent death from the Batahs in Sumatra. The life of the young missionary is traced from the boy, through all the circumstances and changes in his short but devoted missionary life, down to his martyrdom.

27.—*Lectures delivered before the Young Men's Christian Association,* in Exeter Hall, from November, 1855, to February, 1856. 12mo. New York: Carter & Brothers.

The present volume contains thirteen lectures delivered before the Christian Association during the past winter. The object of these lectures is to provide instruction, and help in earnest efforts at self-education and improvement for the thousands of young men who have been brought under their influence during the present and past years. The opening lecture of the present course, on "the obstacles which have retarded moral and political progress," was delivered by Lord John Russell, M. P. The other lectures are mostly by distinguished clergymen, of literary and scientific attainments, and belonging to different denominations. The eighth lecture, on "mercantile morality," by the Rev. William Brock, may be commended for its correct morality, containing many of the views, on that head, so frequently inculcated in the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine.*

28.—*Sight and Hearing:* how Preserved and how Lost. By J. HENRY CLARK, M. D. 12mo., pp. 352. New York: C. Scribner.

This work is designed rather as a hand-book for popular use than the medical profession. In the words of the author, it is "to instruct the mother, the guardian, and the teacher, with regard to the dangers to which children and youth are exposed; to furnish hints to guide in the selection of trades; to advise the scholar when rest or change is required; to point out methods which will tend to preserve the eye in its best condition to the latest period of life, and to induce the avoidance of those habits and practices which are calculated, in a great degree, to injure the important organs of sight and hearing." The language of the work, without puerility, is framed to the popular apprehension, and divested, as far as possible, of professional technicalities.

29.—*Bothwell:* a Poem in Six Parts. By W. EDMONDSTOUNE AYTOUN, D. C. L., author of "Lays of the Scottish Cavaliers," &c. 12mo., pp. 267. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

The scene of this poem is laid in the fortress of Malmoe, where Bothwell was confined. The author has succeeded in rendering available the most striking events in the history of Mary Queen of Scots, down to the period when she parted from Bothwell at Conterberry Hill. The poem is based upon historical data—indeed, the author would have it distinctly understood that except in minor and immaterial matters, he has not deviated from what he considered to be historical verities. The versification appears to be easy, natural, and graceful; and the volume, like everything from the publishing house of Ticknor & Fields, artistically attractive.